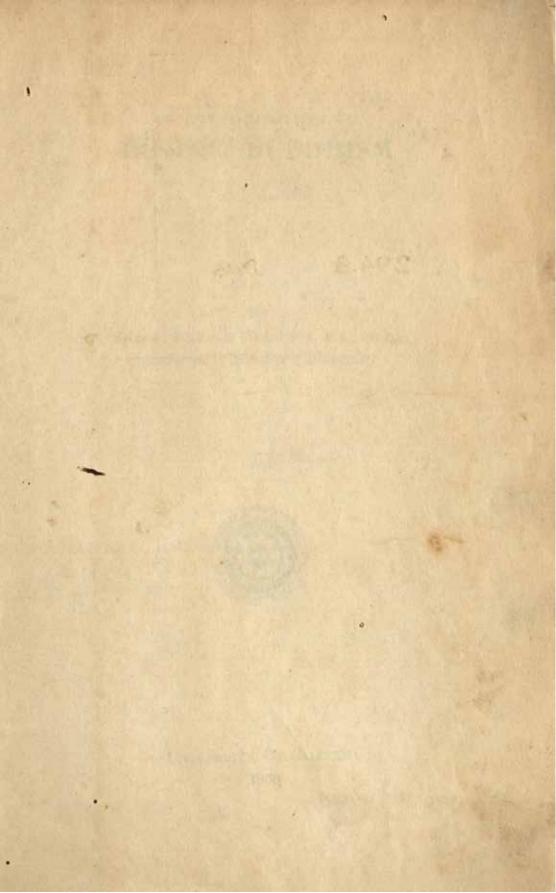
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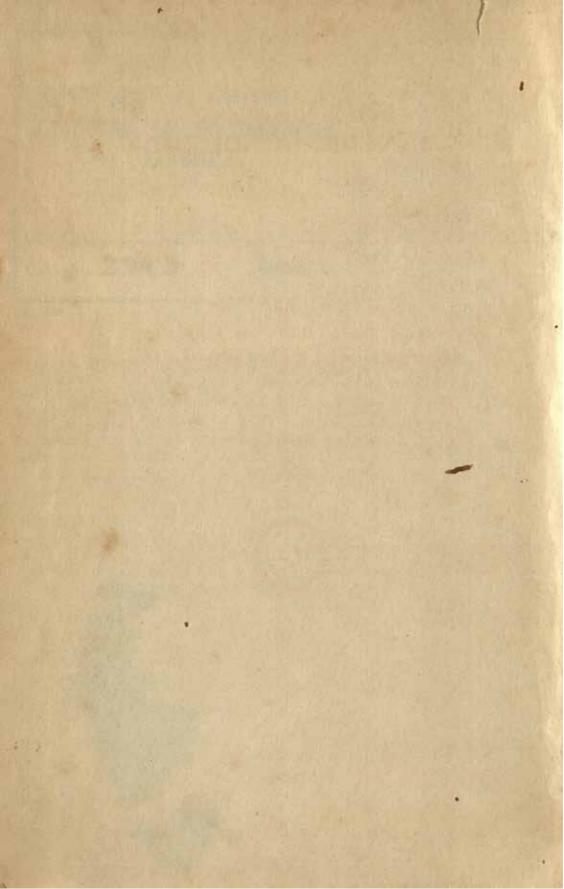
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AN INTRODUCTION TO TANTRIC BUDDHISM 12578

By
Shashi Bhusan Dasgupta, M.A., Ph.D.,
Lecturer, Calcutta University

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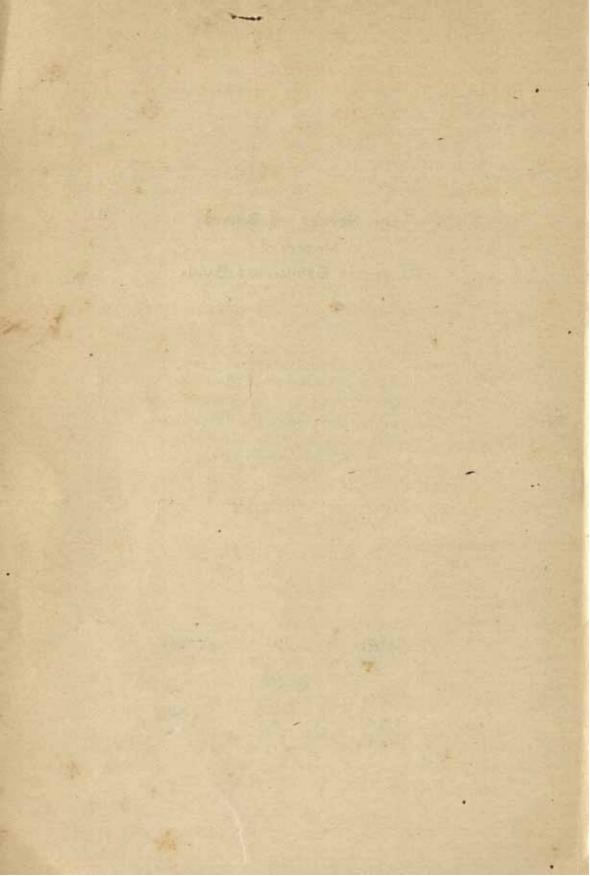
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The Revered and Beloved

Memory of

Professor Benimadhab Barua

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PREFACE

The present work embodies substantially the thesis submitted by the author, and approved, for the Premchand Roychand Studentship of the University of Calcutta in 1937. Due to the abnormal conditions prevailing in the Country during and after the World War II, the author could not arrange to have his work published earlier, it is being published after a lapse of twelve years—an Indian Yuga. Though very late, the author feels it a duty to bring before the reading public the fruits of his labour in the hope that they may be of some use and interest to those who find pleasure in making an academic study of a religious subject.

Whether Vedic or Non-Vedic in origin, Tantricism, both Brahmanical and Buddhistic, represents a special aspect of the religious and cultural life of India. A thorough study of Tantricism is, therefore, indispensable for a close acquaintance with the special quality of the Indian mind. For a long time it was customary to hold that Tantricism is an off-shoot of Hinduism, or that it constitutes only a particular phase of Hindu Sādhanā; but researches in later Buddhism have now brought home that, so far as the extant literature is concerned, the stock of Tantric literature is richer and more varied in the domain of Buddhism than in that of Hinduism. Much more, it is hoped, may be recovered or reconstructed from the Tibetan and Chinese sources. Thanks to the scholarly endeavour of the Oriental Institute, Baroda, which has published a number of important Buddhist Tantric texts and made them available to the scholar and the general reader.

Tantricism, whether Hindu or Buddhistic, (and we shall presently see that they are fundamentally the same) has been the target of all sorts of criticism,

charitable and uncharitable, from scholars, both Oriental and Occidental. It has often been styled as a school of religious mysticism, where the word mysticism is taken, more often than not, as a loose synonym for puzzling obscurity. The present author has, however, tried to keep his mind open as far as practicable throughout the whole study. His interest has mainly been academic and cultural. He has studied a considerable number of texts, both published and unpublished, gathered information, analysed and classified them and has then tried to give a correct exposition on textual basis, avoiding personal observations and judgment as far as possible. There are many things in the practices of the Tantrikas which are undoubtedly unconventional; the author has tried to exhibit them without offering any apology or advocacy. If errors have crept in, in the form of mis-statement or misinterpretation, they are due mainly to the fact that ancient religious literature, embodying complicated practices and subtle realisation, may not be deciphered properly by "our modern spectacled eyes,"

The inspiration of the author came from another source. It is known to all students of the Modern Indian Languages that the literature of the early period—particularly in Bengali—comprises a number of songs and Dohās, dealing with the tenets of the Tāntric Buddhists. To understand and appreciate the meaning of these songs and Dohās the Tāntric background must be clearly understood. The present study was an attempt towards that direction. This study brought to the notice of the author many new and interesting facts which led him to pursue his study further and the findings of further researches in this direction have been incorporated in his book, Obscure Religious Cults as Background of Bengali Literature (published in 1946 by the University of Calcutta).

As the number of published texts on Tantric

PREFACE ix

Buddhism is very scanty, the author had to collect his materials mainly from unpublished manuscripts. As there is no possibility of many of these texts being published in the near future, the author has deemed it proper to quote copiously from these manuscripts to illustrate his points and to substantiate his generalisations. This, the author hopes, will give the reader a better opportunity for making his own judgment and also for testing the validity of the statements made and conclusions arrived at. Because of the obscure nature of the topics discussed the author had to reintroduce some of them in different contexts, which made some amount of repetition unavoidable.

A few words should be said about the manuscripts, most of which are preserved in the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal, some in the Central Library, Boroda, some in the library of the Cambridge University, some in the Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris. Except the manuscripts preserved in the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal, all the other manuscripts were available to the present writer in rotograph through the courtesy of .Dr. S. N. Dasgupta, M.A., Ph.D. (Cal. & Cantab.), D. Lit. (Rome), the then Principal of the Sanskrit College, Calcutta. Apart from the fact that the manuscripts, scribed on palm-leaves, or indigenous hand-made paper in Newari (old Nepalese script), the texts are full of corruptions. Further, the texts were not composed in strictly correct and elegant Sanskrit. The metre is often defective; words are sometimes used without proper suffix; wrong forms are used in analogy; sandhi is not treated as essential; pseudo-Sanskritic words have crept in due probably to the influence of the Vernaculars. Because of all these the author has not thought it wise to tamper with the reading of the manuscripts in the form of corrections. Corrections have been made or suggested only in cases where the mistake or the corruption has been palpable. As for

transcription, the author has experienced some typographical difficulty and a few words had to be left unmarked or without proper marking.

The author acknowledges his indebtedness to his predecessors, who have worked in the field. The nature and extent of such indebtedness have always been indicated in foot-notes. Reference of manuscripts include the folio number and the serial number in the libraries or institutions where they are preserved.

THE AUTHOR.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author takes this opportunity of recording his deep sense of gratitude to Professor S. N. Dasgupta, the great Indian Philosopher, for the help, advice and encouragement the author received from him. Professor Dasgupta drew the attention of the writer to the subject of his study and procured for him many manuscripts from abroad. Some portions of this work were published in the journal Indian Culture in the form of separate articles; for this the board of editors deserves thanks from the author. The author received help from Father Pierre Fallon, M.A., in preparing the press-copy of the manuscript. The author acknowledges his indebtedness to Professor K. N. Mitra, M.A., under whose affectionate care the research on the subject was carried on. The author thanks the Registrar (Offg.) of the Calcutta University, Sri Satishchandra Ghosh, M.A. and the Superintendent (Offg.) of Press, Sri Sibendranath Kanjilal, B.Sc., DIP., PRINT. . (Manchester) for the interest they took in the printing and publication of the book.

ASUTOSH BUILDING, January, 1950. S. B. DASGUPTA.

ABBREVIATIONS

B. N. C. L. B.

G. O. S.

J. R. A. S.

R. A. S. B.

... Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris

... Central Library, Baroda

... Gaekwad's Oriental Series

... Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society

.. Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal

CHAPTER I

PRELIMINARY

(i) Mission Of The Tantras In General And The Buddhist Tantras In Particular

The primary concern of the Buddhist Tantras is not to establish a definite system of metaphysical thought. Just as the Hindu Tantras, taking for granted the fundamental tenets of the Darsanas, apply them to a practical effort of realisation, so the Buddhist Tantras, on the basis of the Mahāyāna principles, dictate practical methods for the realisation of the supreme goal. Ideas, current in other religious circles, are also incorporated. These Tantras are primarily concerned with the Sādhanā or the religious endeavour, but not with any system of abstract philosophy. The philosophical portions introduced here and there can neither successfully explain the various practices and rituals, nor are they always relevant to the topics with which the Tantras are generally concerned. The main object of the Tantra literature is to indicate and explain the practical method for realising the truth, and so, the abstract metaphysical speculations could never find any prominence in it. The different metaphysical systems deal with the nature of the reality and the philosophic method for its realisation; whereas the Tantras lay stress on the esoteric methods for realising that reality. In short, the Tantra, whether Hindu or Buddhistic, has to be regarded as an independent religious literature, which utilised relevant philosophical doctrines, but whose origin may not be traced to any system or systems of philosophy; it consists essentially of religious methods and practices which are current in India from a very old time. The subject-matter of the Tantras may include esoteric yoga, hymns, rites, rituals, doctrines and even law, medicine, magic and so forth.

Etymologically the word Tantra may be taken to mean any kind of elaboration (if derived from the root tan, to spread), or to mean knowledge (if derived from the root tantri). Taking the first derivation, Tantra may be explained as that which spreads knowledge (tanuate, vistăruate inanam anena iti tantram). There is thus a wider connotation of the word Tantra to mean any 'expanded' literature which deals elaborately with any department of study either in a theoretical or in a practical manner. Thus some systems of philosophy have often been referred to as Tantras, e.g., Nyāya-tantresu, Sāmkhya-tantreśu, or Cikitsā-tantresu, and so on. But it has also a limited connotation inasmuch as the word Tantra means an esoteric literature of a religious and practical nature. It is difficult to say how the use of the word Tantra in this limited sense became so important that in common parlance the word seems to have acquired almost entirely this specialised sense. The treatment herein followed is limited to this specialised Tantra literature as a practical esoteric science.

Because of this practical nature of the Tantras, they have never been the subject for pure academic discussion. They have always been transmitted from the preceptor to the disciple in the most secret manner and it has always been held an unpardonable crime on the part of a Sādhaka to let the uninitiated into the secret of their Sādhanā.

A critical study of the nature of Tantric Buddhism will reveal that there is no organic relation between Tantricism and Buddhism of any form. It is not a fact that Buddhism, in the course of evolution in any of its aspects, developed within its arena the composite practices known as Tantricism; on the other hand, Buddhism, in the later phases of Mahāyāna, seems to have adopted these practices, which were a growth of

¹ See an article General Introduction to Tantra Philosophy by Dr. S. N. Dasgupta in his Philosophical Essays (Calcutta University).

the soil and as such a common heritage both of the Hindus and the Buddhists. In short, Buddhism did not evolve them out of its own materials. We have said that as a religious science Tāntricism has its independent history; its association with Buddhism may historically be explained with reference to the spirit of eatholicity which characterises Mahāyāna Buddhism as a whole. It will be more correct to say that the Tāntric theological speculations that are found in the Buddhist Tantras represent the gradual transformation of later Mahāyānic ideas, effected through the association of the various Tāntric practices, than to say that the practices are there because of the theological speculations.

There seems to be no essential difference between Tantricism within the province of Hinduism and that within the province of Buddhism. Apart from the multifarious accessories, to judge by the essentials, Tantricism, both Hindu and Buddhist, lays stress upon a theological principle of duality in non-duality. Both the schools hold that the ultimate non-dual reality possesses two aspects in its fundamental nature,-the negative (nivrtti) and the positive (pravrtti), the static and the dynamic, -and these two aspects of the reality are represented in Hinduism by Siva and Sakti and in Buddhism by Prajñā and Upāya (or śūnyatā and karunā). It has again been held in the Hindu Tantras that the metaphysical principles of Siva-Sakti are manifested in this material world in the form of the male and the female; Tantric Buddhism also holds that the principles of Prajñā and Upāya are objectified in the female and the male. The ultimate goal of both the schools is the perfect state of union-union between the two aspects of the reality and the realisation of the non-dual nature of the self and the not-self. The principle of Tantricism being fundamentally the same everywhere, the superficial differences, whatever these may be, supply only different tone and colour. While the tone and colour of the Hindu Tantras are supplied by the philosophical and religious ideas and practices of the Hindus, those of the Buddhist Tantras are supplied by the ideas and practices of the Buddhists.

If we analyse the Buddhist Tantras we shall find three elements in them, viz., (1) the unsystematised metaphysical fragments taken from the different schools of Buddhistic thought, particularly from Mahāyana Buddhism and also from cognate Hindu thought; (2) a Tantric theology, which, though substantially the same as found in the Hindu Tantras, utilised relevant later Mahāyānic ideas; (3) practices. Apart from the fundamental theological position, we find in the Hindu Tantras the ideas of Vedanta, Yoga, Samkhya, Nyayavaiśesika, the Purānas and even of the medical sciences and the law books-all scattered here and there; so also in the Buddhist Tantras we find fragments of metaphysical thought, which are all taken from the leading schools of Mahāyāna Buddhism as influenced by Upanisadic monism. Ideas are often put side by side indiscriminately without knowing their import and importance, and as a result we find Sūnya-vāda, Vijñāna-vāda and Vedānta all confusedly jumbled together. The leading tenets of early Buddhism also lie scattered here and there side by side with the Mahāyānic and Brahminic ideas and the other Indian systems like Sāmkhya and Yoga also have been frequently introduced in a rather distorted form.

For all practical purposes, let us first of all try to take a general survey of the philosophical and theological background of the Buddhist Tantras and then the three elements, spoken above, will be taken into consideration in order.

(ii) The Salient Features Of Mahäyāna As Contrasted With Hīnayāna

Buddhism has been historically as well as philosophically divided into two great schools, viz., Hīnayāna

and Mahāyāna. By Hīnayāna is generally meant the Pāli Buddhism of the earlier period and it is also popularly known as the Southern Buddhism and its followers are found in the Southern countries like Ceylon, Burma, Siam, Java, Sumatra, etc.; by Mahāyāna Buddhism on the other hand is meant the later Sanskrit Buddhism current in the Northern countries like China, Japan, Tibet, Nepal, etc. The later Buddhists would style their school as the Mahāyāna or the 'great vehicle' in contrast to the narrow and orthodox school of the Buddhists of earlier times, whom they would designate as belonging to the Hinayana or the 'little vehicle'. In the Mahāyāna-sūtrālankāra of Asanga the Hīnayāna has been condemned as very narrow because of its five points of difference with the Mahayana. These are, firstly, the narrow aim of self-liberation and, secondly, the narrow teachings to realise that aim, thirdly, the narrow method applied for this realisation, fourthly, insufficiency of equipment and, fifthly, the shortness of time within which final liberation is guaranteed.2 In fact, the Mahāyāna school is always characterised by a broadness of outlook, and deep sympathy for the suffering beings. But it may be observed in this connection that as on the one hand this freedom of thought, broadness of outlook and the spirit of liberalism saved Buddhism from the walls of narrow scholastic dogmatism and raised it from the selfish hankering after personal liberation to the sublimity of a religion for the suffering humanity, on the other hand, it contained also germs of indiscipline and revelry of wild thoughts which were responsible for the incorporation of all sorts of practices in Buddhism.

The word Mahāyāna, as we find it mentioned in

- Lévi's Edition.

Many Mahāyāna scholars of recent times, however, think that the Mahāyāna view is as old as the Hinayāna.

² āśayasyo' padeśasya prayogasya virodhatah | upastambhasya kālasya yat hīnam hīnam eva tat || Mahāyāna-sūtrālankāra. Ch. I, Verse 10.

the Awakening of faith in Mahayana (Mahayana-śraddho-tpāda-sūtra) of Aśvaghosa, meant the highest principle or reality, or the knowledge which is the primordial source of the universe as a whole; and all the objects, animate and inanimate, are nothing but the manifestations of that one unchanging and immutable principle, and only through it final salvation of all beings is possible. But historically Mahāyāna refers to the school of Buddhism which is styled by its adherents to be the great way to salvation because of the universality and generosity of its tenets. It is held traditionally that after the death of Buddha, there arose a great controversy among his disciples as to the correct interpretation of the sayings of the Master and also about the rules of discipline indispensable for a monk. Great councils were convened to settle these controversies. It is said that in the second council held in Vesāli the controversy finally ended in a split up among the Buddhists and the dissenters convened another great assembly (Mahāsangha) to have a separate school of their own and they were known as the Mahāsānghikas. In this way, as time was passing on, the controversy between these radicalists and the orthodox elders (thera) began to be gradually accelerated and it finally resulted in the growth of the two separate schools; the canonical tenets of the elders being styled as Hinayāna, and that of the latter as Mahāyāna. Without entering into the details of the historical development of the Mahāyāna doctrine, it will be sufficient for our purpose here to draw an outline of the leading tenets of the Mahāyāna school and its points of controversy with Hinavana.

¹ Modern scholars are, however, loath to accept Aśvaghoṣa as the author of the work Mahāyāna-śraddho-tpāda-sūtra. There is again a great deal of controversy over the time of Aśvaghoṣa; but Teitaro Suzuki says,—" Suffice it to say that he lived at the time extending from the latter half of the first century before Christ to about 50 or 80 A.D."

⁻Awakening of Faith in Mahayana, p. 17. ² Ibid., pp. 53-54.

(A) THE FINAL GOAL

As for the final goal the Mahāyānists believe that every man-nay, every being of the world is a potential Buddha; he has within him all the possibilities of becoming a Samyak-sambuddha, i.e., the perfectly enlightened one. Consequently the idea of Arhathood of the Hinayanists was replaced by the idea of Bodhisattvahood of the Mahāyānists. The general aim of the Hīnayānists was to attain Arhathood and thus through nirvana or absolute extinction to be liberated from the cycle of birth and death. But this final extinction through nirvāna is not the ultimate goal of the Mahāyānists; their aim is to become a Bodhisattva. Here comes in the question of universal compassion (mahākarunā) which is one of the cardinal principles of The Bodhisattva never accepts nirvāṇa Mahāvāna. though by meritorious and righteous deeds he becomes entitled to it. He deliberately postpones his own salvation until the whole world of suffering beings be saved. His life is pledged for the salvation of the world, he never cares for his own. Even after being entitled to final liberation the Bodhisattva works for the uplift of the whole world and of his own accord he is ready to wait for time eternal until every suffering creature of the world attains perfect knowledge and becomes a Buddha Himself. Ordinary people of little merit would always take refuge in the all-compassionate Bodhisattva. To pray for the compassion of the Bodhisattva was deemed as one of the best ways of being relieved of all suffering.1 The grand example of Avalokiteśvara Bodhisattva's renunciation of Nirvāna in favour of suffering humanity, described in the Kāranda-vyūha, will inspire a feeling of sublime rever-

¹ Cj. samanvāharantu mām buddhāḥ kṛpā-karuṇā-cetasaḥ | ye ca daśa-diśi loke tiṣṭhanti dvipado-ttamāḥ || yac ca me pātakam karma kṛtam pūrvam sudāruṇam | tat sarvam deśayiṣyāmi sthito daśa-balā-grataḥ || etc.

^{.-}Sikṣā-samuccayaḥ. Bendall's Edition, pp. 160-61.

ence for all time to come.1 The whole of Mahayana · literature breathes this spirit of universal compassion, and all the metaphysical and religious discourses are introduced avowedly with the intention of rendering help to the afflicted in getting rid of their afflictions. In the text Bodhi-caryā-vatāra we find the Bodhisattva praying for the distressed:-"With clasped hands do I pray to all the perfectly enlightened ones in all the quarters,-light the lamp of religion for all that are fallen in sorrow for attachment. With clasping hands do I beseech all the self-controlled wise, who are bent on attaining the final extinction, to wait for innumerable ages,-let not this world be dark (without them). Let by all the good I have thus attained through these (righteous) performances all the sorrows of all the beings be completely pacified. . . . All my existence-all my happiness-all my good in the three worlds unconditionally do I renounce for the fulfilment of the desire of all beings. My mind is bent on Nirvana, and everything has to be renounced for the sake of Nirvāna, but if I am to sacrifice everything let all be given to all things. : . . Let them sport with my body -let them laugh-and amuse; when the body is dedicated to them why should I take any more thought of it? Let them do any work they please to do with this body of mine; my only prayer is,-let not any evil come to them with reference to me. Let all that will

[&]quot;It is said that when Avalokiteśvara Bodhisattva, after obtaining Nirvāṇa, was about to merge himself in the eternal śūnya from the summit of the Sumeru mountain he heard an uproar from a very remote quarter and became remorseful. He sat there forthwith in intense meditation, and immediately realised that the uproar was nothing but the wailings of the people at the disappearance of Avalokiteśvara, the all-compassionate Bodhisattva. In their utter helplessness at the prospect of losing the support of Avalokiteśvara, who was their only saviour from their worldly miseries and sufferings, they rent the sky with their bitter wailings. Avalokiteśvara was deeply moved and when he came to know about this he resolved within himself not to accept his well-merited emancipation so long as even a single individual on earth remained unemancipated." An Introduction to Buddhist Esoterism—by Dr. B. Bhattacharya, p. 29.

Upāya. In the Śrī-cakra-sambhāra-tantra we find-'Appearance, Method and great compassion are the male deity whilst the void, Prajñā, tranquillity and great bliss are the female deity'. In the Jvalavalivajramālā-tantra it is said that the goddess Prajñā resides in all women and the Lord remains in all men. In the Ekalla-vīra-canda-mahā-rosana-tantra the Lord Candaroşana explains to the Lady that all men are of the nature of the Lord who is Upaya and all women are of the nature of the Lady who is Prajñā; and the whole world is of the nature of the unity of Prajñā and Upāya. As the son of Māyādevī Lord Buddha was the incarnation of Upāya and his wife Gopā was the incarnation of Prajñā or Prajñā-pāramitā-and Lord Buddha attained mahāsukha (supreme bliss) of the nature of Nirvāṇa in union with the Prajñā Gopā.

In the Pañca-krama of Nāgārjuna-pāda we find four grades or stages in śūnyatā, of which the first is the śūnyatā and the second is atiśūnyatā. Śūnyatā has been described as Prajñā and it is also called the

¹ yoşit tāvat bhavet prajāā upāyah purusah smṛtah | -MS. p. 21(A).

Cf. also Ibid., MS. p. 39(B). Cf. also Sahaja-siddhi of Dombi-Heruka. —MS. (C.L.B.) p. 82.

Cj. also prajāā pravešayet tatra vajra-kanyām athānyapāt | —Dākārņava, p. 157 (Sāhitya-pariṣat Edition).

² Translated from Tibetan by Kazi Dawasamdup, p. 28.

² sarvanārī-māyā-devī sarvo-pāyamayaḥ prabhuḥ —MS. p. 14(B).

^{*} māyādevī-sutas cā'ham caṇḍa-roṣaṇatām gatah |
tvam eva bhagavatī gopā prajñā-pāramitā-tmikā ||
yāvantas tu striyah sarvās t(v)ad-rūpenaiva tā matāh |
mad-rūpeṇa pumāmsas tu sarva eva prakīrtitāh ||
dvayor bhāva-gatam caitat prajño-pāyā-tmakam jagat |
—MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 9089) p. 16(B).

Cf. also,—narāh vajradharā-kārāh yoşitah vajra-yoşitah | -Ibid., MS. p. 15(A).

⁵ ālokam śūnyam prajñā ca cittam ca paratantrakam —MS, p. 20(A).

woman. Atiśūnya is called Upāya, and the sex

analogy is also there.3

In some places Prajñā is described as the female organ and Upāya as the male organ. Prajñā is called the female organ because it is the abode of all pleasure which is great bliss (mahāsukha). ' Again it is said that Praiñā is called bhaga as she breaks or obstructs all the afflictions. It can also be inferred that the female organ is called the Prajñā because all the beings have their birth from here as all the beings have their origin from the Prajñā or the Śūnyatā." .

It is said in the Hevajra-tantra- 'The lord is of the form of the seed while its pleasure is called the girl'. These Prajñā and Upāya as the symbol of the female and the male are generally called the thunder and the lotus. We have seen before that Vajra is

alokā-bhāsam ity uktam atišūnyam upāyakam |

Ibid., MS. p. 20(B). Cf. also,—prajňo-pāya-samāyogād iti| śūnyam prajňā āloka iti yāvat atišūnyam upāya alokā-bhāsa iti yāvat/ tayoh samāyogo' bhyāsah. Pañca-krama-tippanī, MS. p. 43(B).

3 Cf. rāgas caiva virāgas ca dvayor antarita-trayam dvindriyasya samāpatyā vajra-padma-samāgamāt | etc. Pañca-krama, MS. p. 22(A).

* Cf. yena kleśo-panihanyate/ prajñā-dhināś ca te kleśāh saukhyāt praiña bhaga ucyate.

-Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 11(A). Cf. also,-yoni-svabhavatah prajña upayo bhava-laksanam -Śri-guhya-samāja-tantra, p. 153.

Cf. kha-dhātu-vajra-samyogāt, etc. -Kriyā-samgraha, MS. p. 75(A).

bhañjanam bhagam akhyatam klesa-maradi-bhañjanat | prajňabadhyas ca te klesas tasmat prajňa bhagocyate -Hevajra-tantra.

* dharmo-dayo-dbhavam jñānam kha-samam sopāyā-nvitam | trailokyas tatra jāto hi prajūo-pāya-svarūpatah | —Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 23(B).

Cf. Comm. iha tan-mudrā-yoşit-kamalam dharmo-dayam sukrā-kāro bhavet bhagavān tat-sukham kāminī smrtam -MS. p. 23(B). Cj. also Heruka-tantra.

* Cf. prajūopāya-viniscaya-siddhi, p. 42; strī-ndriyam ca yathā padmam vajram pumse-ndriyam tathā -Jñāna-siddhi, Ch. 2, Verse 11.

¹ strī-samjāā ca tathā proktā, etc. -Ibid., MS. p. 20(B).

speak ill of me-that will do harm to me, that will laugh at me-be entitled to attain perfect knowledge."

This feature of universal compassion was one of the most important factors that popularised Buddhism very much in the lands far and wide and gave the religion a deep humanitarian tone. It is by this emphasis on compassion and also on devotion that Mahāyāna Buddhism could very easily attract the sympathy and attention of millions of people and could also harmonise itself with the current religious trend of India.

(B) THE THREE SCHOOLS,—ŚRĀVAKA-YĀNA, PRATYEKA-BUDDHA-YĀNA AND BODHISATTVA-YĀNA

In connection with this question of universal compassion we may mention the general scheme of classifying the Buddhists into the Śravakas (i.e., the hearers), the Pratyeka-Buddhas (i.e., the individualistic Buddhas) and the Bodhisattvas (i.e., those whose very essence is knowledge). The Śrāvakas are those who always listen to the preachings of the learned and try to follow them in their life. They try to understand the four noble truths (ārya-satya) and to attain parinirvāna through a right comprehension of them. They have mastery over the ten good actions, possess mental power (citta), but they have not the universal compassion (mahā-karunā) which might inspire them for the well-being of the suffering world. They are always busy with themselves and so are regarded as the lowest in the rank. The middle place is assigned to the Pratyeka-Buddhas. They are bent on self-control and generally lead a solitary retired life. They do not require the instructions of any teacher to guide them at every step. They can comprehend the cause and conditions (hetu-pratyaya) of things, and through a right comprehension of the nature of causality attain salvation for themselves. They too do not possess karunā

¹ Ch. III, Verses 4-6, 10-11, 13-15.

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and so are ranked below the Bodhisattvas. The Bodhisattvas are those who are more purified, have full control over their passions, have the right knowledge of all the expedients, have great resolution; perfect enlightenment is their only support. Through their upward march through the ten stages (daśa-bhūmi) and through the constant practice of the pāramitās (the best virtues) they attain Buddhahood; and they attain Buddhahood never for their own sake, but for saving the whole world. In them mahā-karuṇā has got the fullest scope and so they are the best of men.

(C) THE PARAMITAS

In this connection we should also have a cursory glance at the Mahāyānic conception of the six pāramitas or the best moral virtues and the conception of the Bodhicitta or the mind as enlightenment, and the production of the Bodhicitta (bodhi-citto-tpāda). The pāramitās are the moral virtues through the practice of which the aspirer crosses the sea of existence and reaches the other shore.1 These are charity (dana). good conduct (sīla), forbearance (kṣānti), spiritual energy (vīrya), meditation (dhyāna) and knowledge (prajñā). After these virtues are acquired and the moral ground is prepared the aspirer is to produce a strong resolution in his heart for the realisation of his citta as perfect enlightenment. This is what is called the production of the Bodhicitta. The Bodhicitta proper involves within it two elements, viz., perfect enlightenment of the nature of void (śūnyatā) and universal compassion for the beings (karunā); these śūnuatā and karunā combined together give rise to Bodhicitta. After its production, the Bodhicitta proceeds on in an upward march through ten different stages which are called the bodhisattva-bhūmis (i.e., the stages of the Bodhisattva). The first of these is the

^{&#}x27; Păramită literally means that which takes one to the other shore.

stage of Pramuditā or the stage of delight or joy. Here the Bodhisattva rises from the cold, self-sufficing and nihilistic conception of nirvāna to a higher spiritual contemplation. The second is styled as the Vimalā or the stage free from all defilement. The third is the Prabhākarī or that which brightens; in this stage the Bodhisattva attains a clear insight—an intellectual light about the nature of the dharmas. The fourth stage is the Arcismati or 'full of flames',-these flames are the flames of Bodhi which burn to ashes all the passions and ignorance. At this stage the Bodhisattva practises thirty-seven virtues called bodhi-pāksikas which mature the bodhi to perfection. The next is the Suduriayā stage or the stage which is almost invincible. This is a stage from which no evil passion or temptation can move the Bodhisattva. The sixth stage is called the Abhimukhi, where the Bodhisattva is almost face to face with prajñā or the highest knowledge. The seventh is the Durangamā which literally means 'going far away'. In this stage the Bodhisattva attains the knowledge of the expedience which will help him in the attainment of salvation. Though he himself abides here by the principles of void and non-duality and desirelessness, yet his compassion for beings keeps him engaged in the activities for the well-being of all the creatures. The eighth is the stage of Acala, which means 'immovable'. The next is the Sadhumati or the 'good will'; when the Bodhisattva reaches such a stage all the sentient beings are benefited by his attainment of the highest perfect knowledge. The tenth or the last is the stage of Dharma-megha (literally the 'clouds of dharma'), where the Bodhisattva attains perfect knowledge, great compassion, love and sympathy for all the sentient beings. When this last stage of Dharma-megha is reached, the aspirer becomes a perfect Bodhisattva.1

¹ For a detailed study of the subject see Aspects of Mahāyāna Buddhism And Its Relation to Hinayāna, by Dr. N. Dutt, Ch. IV.

(D) THE DOCETIC CONCEPTION OF THE THREE KAYAS

Another departure of the Mahāyānists from the Hinayanists is in the docetic conception of the personality of Buddha. The Hinayanists conceived Buddha only as a historical personage in the life and activities of Sākyamuni. But with the Mahāyānists Buddha is no particular historical man,-he is the ultimate principle as the totality of things or as the cosmic unity. But this highest principle has three aspects which are known as the three kayas of the Buddha. These are,-(i) Dharma-kāya, (ii) Sambhoga-kāya and (iii) Nirmāṇa-kāya. The word Dharma-kāya is often explained as the body of the laws (dharma); and it may also be remembered that Buddha is said to have told his disciples that his teachings should be recognised as his own immortal body. But the word dharma is generally used in the Mahāyāna texts in the sense of 'entity'; and the Dharma-kāya means the 'thatness' (tathatārūpa) of all the entities; it is in other words the dharma-dhātu or the primordial element underlying all that exists. It has been also termed as the Svabhavakāya', i.e., the body of the ultimate nature. It is described as devoid of all characters, but possessing eternal and innumerable qualities. It is neither the mind, nor matter-nor something different from them both. The nature of the Dharma-kaya is described in the Avatamsaka-sūtra in the following manner:-"The Dharmakaya, though manifesting itself in the triple world, is free from impurities and desires. It unfolds itself here, there, and everywhere responding to the call of karma. It is not an individual reality. it is not a false existence, but is universal and pure. It comes from nowhere, it goes to nowhere; it does not

¹ But we shall see later on that Svabhāva-kāya or Sahaja-kāya or Vajra-kāya was another kāya invented by the Vajrayānists and the Sahajiyās as the ultimate stage even after the Dharma-kāya. This stage has also been styled as the Mahāsukha-kāya.

² Quoted in Suzuki's Outlines of Mahayana Buddhism, pp. 228-24.

assert itself, nor is it subject to annihilation. It is for ever serene and eternal. It is the One, devoid of all determinations. This body of Dharma has no boundary, no quarters, but is embodied in all bodies. Its freedom or spontaneity is incomprehensible, its spiritual presence in things corporeal is incomprehensible. All forms of corporeality are involved therein, it is able to create all things. Assuming any concrete material body as required by the nature and condition of karma, it illuminates all creations. Though it is the treasure of intelligence, it is void of particularity. There is no place in the universe where this body does not prevail. The universe becomes, but this body for ever remains. It is free from all opposites and contraries, yet it is working in all things to lead them to Nirvāna."

The Sambhoga-kāya is generally explained as the 'body of bliss' or the refulgent body of the Buddha. It is a very subtle body which manifests itself in the various conditions of bliss in the superhuman beings for preaching the noble truths and for arousing in the mind of all the Śrāvakas, Pratyeka-Buddhas and the lay Bodhisattvas joy, delight and love for the noble religion (sad-dharma). It has been explained in the Sata-sāhasrikā and the Pañcavimsati-sāhasrikā as "an exceedingly refulgent body, from every pore of which streamed forth countless brilliant rays of light, illuminating the lokadhātus as innumerable as the sands of the Ganges. When this body stretched out its tongue, innumerable rays of light issued forth from it, and on each ray of light was found a lotus of thousand petals on which was seated a Tathagata-vigraha (an image of the Tathagata, a sort of Nirmana-kaya). preaching to Bodhisattvas, Grhasthas (householders), Prayrajitas (recluses) and others the dharma consisting of the six pāramitās."

See Aspects Of Mahāyāna Buddhism And Its Relation To Hīnayāna by Dr. N. Dutt, p. 118.

The Nirmāṇa-kāya is the historical personage of the Buddha or the 'Body of Transformation'. The historical Buddha is regarded as an incarnation of the eternal Tathagata or the manifestation in condescension of the Dharma-tathatā. Śākyasimha Buddha is only one of the incarnations of the Dharma-kāya Buddha and his life and teachings are sought to be explained as the 'apparent doings of a phantom of the Buddha-kāya',--' a shadow image created to follow the ways of the world' only to convince the ignorant people of the world that it is not beyond the capacity of a man to attain perfection. It is generally taken that the human Buddhas (Mānuṣī Buddha) like Dīpankara, Kaśyapa, Gautama Buddha, Maitreya and others represent the Nirmāṇa-kāya; the Dhyānī Bodhisattvas (Vairocana, Aksobhya and others) in their body of supreme happiness represent the Sambhoga-kāya and the Dhyani Buddha in Nirvana in a state of complete union with all the truths for time eternal represents the Dharma-kāya.

This Tri-kāya theory of the Mahāyānists developed these cosmological and ontological significance only in course of its evolution. Before it developed these cosmological and ontological meanings, the theory as mere Buddhalogy would be explained in the following manner:—

The quintessence of Buddha is Pure Enlightenment (bodhi) or perfect Wisdom (prajñā-pāramitā), or knowledge of the Law (dharma), i.e., the absolute truth. By attaining this knowledge nirvāṇa is also attained; the Dharma-kāya Buddha is the Buddha in nirvāṇa (Samādhi-kāya). Again, before he is merged into nirvāṇa he possesses and enjoys, for his own sake and for others' welfare, the fruit of his charitable behaviour as a Bodhisattva, and this is the Body of Enjoyment or the Beatific Body (Sambhoga-kāya). Again, human

¹ See an article, The Three Bodies of a Buddha by Prof. La Vallée Pousin in the J.R.A.S., 1906, pp. 945-46.

beings known as the Buddhas, who are created by the magical contrivances represent the Created Body (Nirmāṇa-kāya).

But after the Tri-kāya theory acquires an ontological and cosmological meaning, Dharma-kāya means the void and permanent reality underlying the things (dharma), or, in other words, the uncharacterised pure consciousness (vijāapti-mātra). Sambhoga-kāya means the Dharma-kāya evolved as Being, Bliss, Charity, Radiance, or the Intellect, individualised as the Bodhisattva. Nirmāṇa-kāya is the Transformation Body, which is the same as consciousness defiled and individualised as 'common people' (prthag-jana). Later on, this Buddhalogy, cosmology and ontology were all confusedly mixed up,—and we find the three Kāyas mentioned more often in their composite sense than either as pure Buddhalogy or as pure ontology.

(F) PREDOMINANCE OF PHILOSOPHICAL THOUGHTS

Another notable phase of Mahāyāna Buddhism is the exuberant growth of philosophical thought in it. The sayings of the Master were sought to be brought to their logical and metaphysical conclusions, and there developed distinct systems of philosophical thoughts with a host of staunch exponents. The most remarkable is the evolution of the import of the word śūnyatā. In the old canonical works the term śūnyatā probably implied the momentary or the transitory nature of all entities; but the Mādhyamikas built up a new system of uncompromising nihilism through a different interpretation of the word śūnyatā and the Vijñānavādins again in their turn contradicted the Mādhyamikas offering another interpretation of the word.

But we should not lay undue stress on the divisions of schools or sects thus made. It has often been said that these divisions of the yānas are merely provisional; they may be regarded as being relative and as having only methodological interest; the Lankāvatāra says, they (the yānas) are but different methods suitable to different persons; when the mind returns to its original abode, there is neither the path nor any one who adopts it. Śrāvaka-yāna, Pratyeka-Buddha-yāna and Bodhisattva-yāna have often been said to be the different stages in the same school of faith,—a Śrāvaka by further endeavour becomes a Pratyeka-Buddha, and he again by further endeavour becomes a Bodhisattva and the Bodhisattva becomes the Buddha himself.

(iii) Philosophical Systems

Now, after taking this general survey of the main features of Mahāyāna Buddhism let us take a bird's-eye-view of the philosophical systems of Mahāyāna; and as the metaphysical fragments, found in the different Tāntrie literature, are nothing but indistinct echoes of these schools of Mahāyāna philosophy, we think it proper to go into some detail of these systems of thought. The Buddhist Tantras are based more on the Yogācāra school than on the Śūnyavāda,—and the monistic tendency of the Yogācāra school has often been consciously and unconsciously drawn to pure Vedāntic thought. It is for this reason that we shall deal with the Yogācāra more elaborately and we shall also try to explain very briefly the philosophical affinity of Yogācāra with Vedānta.

¹ citte tu vai paravṛtte na yānam na ca yāyinaḥ || Lankāvatāra-sūtra. Lévi's Edition, p. 822.

Cf. also:—
parāvṛtte tu vai citte na yānam nāpi yāninaḥ ||
Advaya-vajra-samgraha, p. 22.

upāya-kauśalya mameva rūpam yat trīni yānāny upadaršayāmi | ekam tu yānam hi nayaš ca eka ekā ceyam dešanā nāyakānām | Saddharma-pundarīka, Ch. II, Verse 69. The Bibliotheca Buddhica Publication.

Hiuen Tsang writes that when he came to India in the seventh century A.D. there were four schools of Buddhism, viz., Sautrāntika, Vaibhāṣika, Mādhyamika and Vijňānavāda or Yogācāra. The former two belonged to Hīnayāna and the latter two to Mahāyāna. The Vaibhāṣikas took their stand on the Abhidharma literature and did not accept the authority of the Sūtras. They believed in the reality of the extramental world and according to them our knowledge of the external world is an exact copy of it and as such it is direct and real. The Sautrantikas based their views on the Sūtra literature; they were also realists but like the Vaibhāṣikas they did not base the notion of the external existence on the evidence of our direct perception; it is but an inference. The point of discussion regarding the status of external objects between the Yogācārins and the Sautrāntikas may briefly be stated thus: the Yogācārins contend that the object of awareness and awareness itself are one and the same, i.e., the different contents of knowledge as yellow, blue etc. are but diverse forms or transformation of knowledge itself; the Sautrantikas hold that it may be admitted that the diverse contents represent the diverse forms of knowledge, or rather the content may be regarded as in some sense identical with the knowledge, if there must be something outside knowledge by the operation of which the diversity of the forms of knowledge or its contents could be explained or inferred.1 Though the early schools of Buddhism were thus in a sense all realists they did not believe in the substantiality or the permanence of the world,everything being momentary and as such ultimately void (śūnya).

Mahāyāna Buddhism has been roughly classed under two heads, viz., Sūnyavāda, and Vijñānavāda or

¹ Śāstra-dīpikā (1-1-5).

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Yogācāra. The distinction between the two schools is not, however, fundamental, and very often the one verges into the other. Nāgārjuna (100 A.D.) was the chief exponent of Śūnyavāda with its uncompromising spirit of negation. Another earlier current was flowing on with a spirit of compromise with the Upanisadic doctrine of monism. We find trace of the latter in as early a Mahāvāna text as the Lankāvatāra-sūtra, we find it somewhat systematised in the Tathata doctrine of Aśvaghosa' and it took a definite turn of uncompromising idealism in the hands of the Vijñānavādins like Maitreya, Asanga, Vasubhandhu and others; and we may add here that this trend of thought attained fulfilment in the Vedantic monism of Sankara. Let us first of all understand the standpoint of the Sūnyavadins and then we shall try to trace the development of the other currents of thought in some detail.

(A) Mādhyamika Philosophy of Nāgārjuna

The Mādhyamika-vṛtti of Nāgārjuna, commented upon by Candrakīrti, begins with the declaration that the Mādhyamikas have no thesis to prove, their business is to contradict any and every thesis that may be offered by any school of thought. First of all is taken the principle of 'dependent origination' (pratītya-samutpāda) realised and preached by Lord Buddha himself. The phrase pratītya-samutpāda has been interpreted in two different ways by former commentators; but after refuting both these views Candrakīrti holds that the real significance of the theory of

¹ It has been hinted before that modern scholars are not sure about the authorship of the work Mahāyāna-śraddhotpāda-sūtra where we find the Tathatāvāda expounded.

² It may either be explained as the origination ($samutp\bar{a}da$) of some existence ($bh\bar{a}va$) getting hold of or obtaining ($prat\bar{i}tya=pra+\sqrt{i+tya}=$ getting) some cause and conditions (hetu-pratyaya). Or it may be explained as the origination with reference to each and every destructible individual ($\sqrt{i}=$ to go, to change, i.e., to be destroyed).

pratitya-samutpāda is no law about the ultimately real nature of things; it is a mere law about the relation of inter-dependence among the illusory appearances as things; the law is concerned purely with the provisional reality (samvrti-satya). These illusory appearances which constitute the realm of our experiences have their origin in a law of inter-relation of dependence which is responsible for the world-process as a whole. The real import of this law of relativity of the Mādhyamikas is indeed very difficult to understand. Ultimately there is no origination neither cessation;destructibility-no permanence; no reality-no unreality; no coming-no going; no subjectivity-no objectivity; no knowledge-no knowable-everything is free from all the disturbances of birth, decrepitude and death. There is neither real origination of the thing by its own nature, nor by others-nor by a combination of both,-nor by any un-reason;-there is origination nowhere-at no time-and of none.

Things cannot be self-originated; for, self-origination implies the existence of the thing before it originates itself. If a thing exists already by itself, there seems to be no satisfactory reason, why it should produce itself once more. Moreover, if the existent again require self-production, this will involve the fallacy of the vicious infinite. The Sāmkhya school,

But Candrakīrti dismisses both the interpretations as unsatisfactory. For, if we accept the latter interpretation, we cannot explain consistently all the passages of the scriptures where the phrase pratītyasamutpāda occurs. An attempt may be made to solve the difficulty by explaining the word 'getting' (prāptī) as apekṣā (dependence or relativity), and pratītya-samutpāda may simply be taken to imply,—that being there, it happens (asmin sati idam bhavatī); but here the exact meaning of each of the component parts, viz., pratītya and samutpāda, remains unexplained.

na svato nāpi parato na dvābhyām nāpyahetutah | utpannā jātu vidyante bhāvāh kvacana kecana |

Mādhyamika-vṛtti. Lévi's Edition, p. 12.

² As the Mādhyamikas had no thesis to prove, they would never lay any stress on the importance of formal logic. It has been held

however, may say that by causality and the identity of the cause and the effect they never mean that the effect is a new manifestation in a particular form (e.g., a jar); but by causality is meant only potentiality. It is said in reply that their argument does not stand to reason; for if by causality is meant the mere potentiality then the effect is never produced at all.

The next consideration is about the possibility of the origination of a thing by, or from, anything else. But this position is assailed at once by the argument that the Mādhyamikas do not admit any difference in things, and so there cannot be any parabhava (otherness) at all. Moreover, the quintessence of a particular thing cannot remain in the extraneous cause and conditions. If the quintessence of anything could be found in anything else, we might have expected the possibility of darkness from the nature of light, and in that case anything might have come out of anything else. Neither can it be said that the things are produced by a combination of the self and the not-self: for, the combination of two things cannot possess the quality which they do never possess separately, and whatever absurdity and incongruity have been pointed out against them separately may as well be pointed out against their combination. Neither is it reasonable to hold that things originate without any reason,-for, if there be no reason behind origination, the conception of the world without having any sufficient reason will seem just like the colour and scent of a lotus growing in the sky. Neither any transcen-

by Candrakirti that all the attempts of Bhāva-viveka (an earlier commentator on Nāgārjuna) to adduce formal reasons in his favour only bespeaks his own love of formal logic, but the Mādhyamikas do not require any formal logic at all. Moreover, had there been any reality in the data of our logical concepts, there might have been any question of formal logic at all, but as all realities are absolutely denied, there remains no scope and possibility of formal logic.

¹ Madhyamika-vrtti, p. 21.

² Ibid., p. 36.

³ Ibid., p. 38.

dental being like God and others can produce the things,—for, any such being must also be included within the alternatives that have already been discussed. Thus the final conclusion arrived at is that there is nothing like production or origination; the world process is a mere eternal flux of successional series. The references to causality found in the scriptures through the mouth of the Lord himself do not refer to the immutable void nature of objects which reveals itself when the darkness of ignorance is removed; on the contrary, it refers to the objects of knowledge of those whose vision is vitiated by the darkness of ignorance. The scriptural texts must not be interpreted literally and rigorously, we must try to get at the hidden meaning aimed at by the master.

The emphasis of Nagarjuna is not only on the noncausality of things, but also on the non-substantial nature of things. Nothing has got any nature (svabhāva); for, had it any nature, that nature would remain in it even in the absence of the cause and conditions (hetu-pratuaya), and that self-sufficient nature would no more require the help of any cause and condition for its production. Neither is it correct to say that the nature of a thing does not exist before its production through the collocation of cause and conditions; for, in that case the nature of a thing would be created by something else; but the nature of a thing no more remains in its own nature when it loses its independence,-for svabhāva implies independence." It may, of course, be argued that if all the dharmas are without svabhāva, words which are included in the totality of dharmas must also be devoid of essence,and so there cannot even be the proposition that nothing exists, or that everything is void by nature. The Mādhyamikas will reply,- Suppose that a fool wrongly perceives a mirage as water, and that you argue

¹ Ibid., p. 41.

² Ibid., Ch. XV, p. 260.

against that wrong perception. The fact (viz., your arguing against the existence of water in the mirage) is just the same as that (viz., our arguing against the essence of the dharmas). But it may further be objected,—'If there is neither the perception nor the perceived, and the perceiver also be non-existent, then there is neither the refutation, nor the refuted and the refuter also does not exist.' The reply is,—'Suppose that one man created by magic (prevents) another man created by magic or that one Māyāpuruṣa (prevents) another Māyā-puruṣa (from doing something). The relation (lit. the meaning) of the refutation and the refuted is just like this."

The Sūnyatā-doctrine of Nāgārjuna may seem incompatible with the doctrine of nirvana. If everything be void and there be neither origination nor destruction, then by the destruction or arrest of what should we attain nirvana? The reply of Nagarjuna is that nirvāna is not something which is to be attained through the destruction or the arrest of anything whatsoever; it is but the complete cessation of all mental constructions.5 It has been described as the destruction of nothing,-the attainment of nothing,-it is neither annihilation, nor eternally existent;-it is neither the arrested, nor the produced-this is the definition of nirvana. Nothing is existent,-nothing is non-existent; so the question of annihilation or suppression does not arise at all. It is not the negation of any existence,-it is but the cessation of all notions

¹ Vigraha-vyāvartanī of Nāgārjuna, translated from the Chinese and Tibetan Texts by Tucci (G.O.S., Vol. XLIX, Verse No. xiii).

² Ibid., Verse No. xv. ³ Ibid., Verse No. xxiii.

⁴ Mādhyamika-vṛtti, Ch. XXV, p. 519.

⁵ Ibid., p. 522.

aprahīnam asamprāptam anucchinnam ašāšvatam | aniruddham anutpannam etan nirvāņam ucyate | Ibid., p. 521.

of existence and non-existence. All consciousness vanishes in nirvāṇa like a lamp extinguished. Nirvāṇa is no Ens, neither non-Ens, it is like a knot entwined by the empty space (ākāśa) and untied again by that same empty space.

As we have said, the exact position of Nāgārjuna is very difficult to understand; but it seems clear that his emphasis is more on negation, whereas the emphasis of the Vijñānavādins is on the existence of some transcendental absolute reality in the form of the 'thatness' (tathatā) of all entities or as pure consciousness. The Lankāvatāra-sūtra which is taken by scholars to be one of the early texts of Vijñānavāda says that anutpāda (uncreate) and śūnya (void) mean essencelessness of all that appear; but the reality remains as mere consciousness (citta-mātra-vyavasthānam) transcending all duality (dvaya-bhāva) of subjectivity and objectivity.

(B) THE TATHATA-VADA OF AŚVAGHOSA

The 'Tathatā' doctrine of Aśvaghoṣa (? 80 A.D.) begins with a denial of the world of phenomena in both its subjective and objective aspects, but with an affirmation of an ultimate and absolute reality which is the uncreate, eternal and immutable cosmic principle underlying the diversity of the universe as a whole. Two aspects of this reality may be distinguished,—the aspect of pure 'thatness' or 'suchness' (bhūta-tathatā) and the aspect of the cycle of birth and death (samsāra),' each being inseparably connected with the other.

¹ bhāvā-bhāva-parāmarśa-kṣayo nirvāṇam ucyate | Ratṇāvalī, quoted in the Mādhyamika-vṛtti, p. 524.

² ākāšena krto granthirākāšenaiva mocitah ||

Ibid., p. 540.

^a Lankāvatāra-sūtra, Ch. III.

⁴ Compare the Sallakṣaṇa and the Svalakṣaṇa of the abhūta-parikalpa in the Madhyānta-vibhāga. Infra.

The 'thatness' (bhūta-tathatā) is 'the oneness of the totality of things (dharma-dhātu), the great all-including whole, the quintessence of the Doctrine'. In the essence of the 'thatness' there is nothing to be excluded, nothing to be added,—it has neither beginning nor end—it cannot be expressed by words and expressions which are but the representations of the empirical concepts,—its very nature is unspeakable and inexplicable,—it can only be indicated somehow as 'thatness'.

The external world, which appears under the particularised forms of individuation, is nothing but a creation of the mind with its inherited categories (smṛti), which are the mere products of ignorance. The production of the objective world through the disturbance of smṛti1 in the all-conserving mind (ālayavijnana) 'may be illustrated by the simile of the water and the waves. Here the water can be said to be identical (in one sense) with the waves. The waves are stirred up by the wind, but the water remains the same. When the wind ceases, the motion of the waves subsides; but the water remains the same. Likewise when the mind of all creatures, which in its own nature is pure and clear, is stirred up by the wind of ignorance (avidyā), the waves of mentality (vijñāna) make their appearance'. So the external world, with all its variety and complexity, has no real existence and as such the fundamental nature of things is neither namable nor explicable. Things have no signs of distinction, they possess absolute sameness (samatā).

¹ What the word Smṛti signifies in this context is not exactly known. Suzuki takes it to be the 'confused subjectivity'. (See, The Awakening of Faith in Mahāyāna Buddhism, p. 56, f.n. No. 1); but Dr. S. N. Dasgupta suggests it to be used in the sense of Vāsanā (See, A History of Indian Philosophy, Vol. I, p. 180, f.n. No. 1). This word however also reminds us of the 'confused ideas' of Spinoza.

² Aśvaghosa's Awakening of Faith, Suzuki's translation, p. 67-8.

They are subject neither to transformation, nor to destruction. They are nothing but the one soul, for which 'suchness' is another designation. But how can all beings conform to and have an insight into suchness? The answer is,—'As soon as you understand that when the totality of existence is spoken of, or thought of, there is neither that which speaks, nor that which is spoken of, there is neither that which thinks nor that which is thought of; then you conform to suchness; and when your subjectivity is thus completely obliterated, it is said to have the insight'.'

This 'suchness' of things may be viewed under two aspects, negative and positive. On its negative side (śūnyatā) it asserts the complete negation of all the attributes of all things; in its metaphysical origin it has nothing to do with things defiled, which are conditional or relative by nature,-it is free from all signs of distinction existing among phenomenal objects,-it is independent of unreal, particularising consciousness. The suchness is 'neither that which is existence, nor that which is non-existence, nor that which is at once existence and non-existence, nor that which is not at once existence and non-existence; it is neither that which is unity, nor that which is plurality, nor that which is at once unity and plurality, nor that which is not at once unity and plurality. In a word, as suchness cannot be comprehended by the particularising consciousness of all beings, we call it the negation (śūnyatā). The 'tathatā' is śūnya (void) for two reasons,-firstly, there is no content in it, it being the oneness of the totality of things; secondly, there is neither any subject to comprehend it; so that its nature involves the denial of both the subject and the object; there is neither that which is negated, nor that which negates-both being absorbed in the nature of the 'tathata'.

¹ Ibid., p. 58.

² Ibid pp. 59-60.

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But this 'tathatā' may also be viewed as something positive (aśūnyatā) in the sense that it contains infinite merits, that it is self-existent; in it we perceive the pure soul manifesting itself as eternal, permanent, immutable and completely comprising all things that are pure. By the non-void nature of the 'tathatā' should never be meant any sort of affirmation on it,—we can have only a glimpse of the truth by transcending our subjective categories.

As for samsara, it evolves forth as the law of causation from the womb of the tathagata (tathagatagarbha). When the absolute reality assumes a relative aspect by its self-affirmation, it is called the allconserving mind or the receptacle mind (ālayavijāāna). From the receptacle or all-conserving mind evolves through the influence of non-enlightenment an ego principle. 'In the all-conserving mind ignorance obtains; and from non-enlightenment starts that which sees, that which represents, that which apprehends an objective world, and that which constantly particularises.' Thus the phenomenal world, established only through ignorance and the root-instincts (smrti= vāsanā) has no more reality than the images in a mirror -all modes of particularisation being the self-particularisation of the mind. But by the belief in the existence of the external world the mind becomes oblivious of the principle of sameness (samatā) that underlies all things. The quintessence of all things is one and the same, perfectly calm and tranquil, and shows no sign of becoming; ignorance, however, is in its blindness and delusion oblivious of enlightenment and on that account cannot recognise truthfully all those conditions, differences and activities which characterise the phenomena of the universe. The annihilation of ignorance is, therefore, the only way of liberation from the cycle of birth and death. But it should also be remembered that the mere eradication of ignorance is not sufficient to guarantee liberation, for, so long as

there will remain a mind, ignorance may recur at any time; so the total extinction of mind is the safest course for attaining eternal liberation.

(A) VIJNĀNAVĀDA OR YOGĀCĀRA

After this 'Tathatā' doctrine of Aśvaghosa, the conception of the Abhūta-parikalpa as found in the Madhyānta-vibhāga, said to be originally expounded by Maitreva and commented upon by Vasubandhu and Sthiramati, gives a more positive and precise conception of the ultimate reality. It begins with the aphorism,- 'The Abhūta-parikalpa exists, no duality exists in it; void exists in it and it also exists in the void." This aphorism is a challenge to both the extreme Realists (i.e., the Sarvāsti-vādins) and to the extreme Nihilists (i.e., the Mādhyamikas),2 and the thesis of the Abhūta-parikalpa is something like a middle path between the two extremes. The word Abhūta-parikalpa literally means—that which is devoid of all 'constructs'-i.e., the substratum where there is the mere possibility of all subjectivity and objectivity. -but in which the duality has no reality.3

The aphorism may be interpreted, in the first instance, as a refutation of the extreme sceptic view of the Mādhyamikas. They (i.e., the Mādhyamikas)

¹ abhūta-parikalpo'sti dvayam tatra na vidyate | śūnyatā vidyate tv atra tasyām api sa vidyate ||

Madhyānta-vibhāga-ţikā. Lévi's Edition, p. 10.

² An impartial scrutiny into the nature of the Sūnyatā of the Mādhyamikas reveals the fact that the Sūnyatā of the Mādhyamikas may not be taken in the extreme nihilistic sense in which it has been taken by the Vijñānavādins and the Vedāntins; but as the Vijñānavādins have always taken this śūnyatā of the Mādhyamikas in the extreme nihilistic sense, we shall also admit this interpretation only to understand the exact standpoint of the Vijñānavādins.

Contpare here the definition of Abhūta-parikalpa as found in the Mahāyāna-sūtrālankāra of Asanga,—

abhūta-kalpo na bhūto nābhūto kalpa eva ca| na kalpo nāpi cākalpaḥ sarvam jūeyam nirucyate ||

Ch. XI, Verse 31. (Lévi's Edition).

hold that all the elements are non-essential or unreal (nih-svabhāva) like the pair of horns of the hare. Against them it is said that all the dharmas are not void (śūnya) in the sense that nothing exists at all, but in the sense that in the ultimate reality as Abhūtaparikalpa there is no duality of subjectivity and objectivity. Sunyata is the absence of the knower and the knowable (grāhya-grāhaka-rahitatā), but it never imabsolute negation (nāstitva). So śūnyatā exists in the Abhūta-parikalpa as the absence of the perceiver and the perceived. But even though this non-dual śūnyatā is already there in the Abhūtaparikalpa, we are not at once liberated because of the fact that in śūnyatā, which is of the nature of perfect purity, also exists the Abhūta-parikalpa with the dormant seeds of the subjective-objective world.

The same argument can also be directed against the extreme Realists who believe in the reality of the extra-mental objects (dravya). The objects do not exist as extra-mental realities, they are real in the form of the Abhūta-parikalpa, which is a mere transcendental existence (bhāva-mātra). We cannot think of any reality which is outside our mind, and our mentation arises without reference to any object as in the dream; our mind (viiñāna) projects itself as an image of the objective reality (arthā-bhāsa) as the fruition (vipāka) of the seeds of the root-instincts (vāsanā). But it may be argued that if the objective world is totally denied, there remains nothing as the support of our purity (viśuddhyālambana) and, therefore, there remains no possibility of liberation. The reply is that śūnyatā in the form of the absence of all subjectivity and objectivity remains there as the support of our final purification. But like the purity of the sky this sūnuatā also is not easily realisable because of its connection with the Abhūta-parikalpa which contains in it the ultimate seeds of the illusory mental and material world (cf. the kleśa-varana and the jñeya-varana).

Some are of opinion that both subjectivity and objectivity are absolutely chimerical as the possibility of the son of a barren woman. Others, on the other hand, think that the negation of the dharmas implies only the negation of a soul-substance to regulate the internal affairs (antar-vyāpāra-puruṣa-rahitatā), but the dharmas have their extra-mental reality. To repudiate the denial of the universal absolute on the one hand and to deny the substantiality of the external things on the other, it is said that in the Abhūta-parikalpa is contained the śūnyatā in the sense of the denial of all duality and the reality of the appearances.'

The world of subjectivity and objectivity is being produced by our constructive imagination (vikalpa) just like the magically evoked phantom of beasts. The word Abhūta implies that the images of things, as they are constructed by our imagination, do not exist in these very forms, and the word parikalpa implies that they have not the reality they are supposed to have. But though this phenomenal world of sub-

¹ From the moral standpoint the aphorism may be said to be introduced only to examine the double nature of the reality as impure, or phenomenal (samkleśa) and pure absolute (vyavadānā). The impure phenomenal reality is a merely illusory representation of the Abhūta-parikalpa,—which may, therefore, be said to be a transcendental illusion. But the śūnyatā exists in it as the absolute purifying force counter-acting the corrupting forces of impure illusion; but this perfect purity is to be sought from the impure illusory phenomenal reality itself,—there is no existential difference between the purity and the impurity;—and it is therefore said,—'in her also exists it'. As the principle of perfect purity is there, the defiling principle of phenomenalisation is also there; and hence the necessity for moral efforts. Madhyānta-vibhāga-tīkā. Lévi's Edition, p. 13.

² Cj. māyā-hasty-ākṛti-grāha-bhrānter dvayam udāhṛtam | dvayam tatra yathā nā'sti dvayam caivo'palabhyate | Mahāyāna-sūtrālankāra. Ch. XI, Verse 25.

^{* &}quot;abhūta"-vacanena ca yathā'yam parikalpyate grāhya-grāhakatvena tathā nā'stī'ti pradaršayati |

[&]quot;parikalpa"-vacanena tu artho yatha parikalpyate tatha'rtho na vidyate iti pradarsayati | Madhyanta-vibhaga-tika.

jectivity and objectivity is illusory, the Abhūta-parikalpa is not also chimerical. As the rope is void (śūnya) in the form of the snake, but not as the rope, in the same way things are illusory and non-existent in their subjective and objective nature, but not also in the Abhūta-parikalpa nature. The correct description of śūnyatā is that the thing, which is devoid of something, exists, but the thing, of which it is devoid, does not exist. The nature of the śūnyatā is to be realised as both non-affirmation (anadhyā-ropa) as well as non-negation (anapavāda). It is non-affirmation in the sense of the denial of the duality and non-denial in the sense of the affirmation of the non-dual (advaya).

The objectless consciousness manifests itself as reflected awareness in the form of the object and the subject and that which sticks to them; in absence of this (the awareness) those (i.e., the images) are also nonexistent. The Abhūta-parikalpa in its specific nature (sva-laksana) is of the nature of awareness. All mentations arise out of the subliminal mind store, or the all-conserving mind under the influence of cooperating forces which bring their germs to maturity and the difference which is produced in the subliminal mind store in accordance with the influence of moral. immoral or non-moral deeds, is responsible for the manifold phenomenal individual existences in all the spheres of life. Although our consciousness does not contain a real plurality of different objects, it has the capacity of producing manifold ideas. Each is produced from its own germ in accordance with the law of our experiential series.2

The absolute nature of the Abhūta-parikalpa, however, cannot be known through the ordinary mind, for it involves the paradox of proving the fact of insanity

¹ artha-sattvātma-vijāapti-pratibhāsam prajāyate | vijāānam nā'sti cā'syā'rthas tad abhāvāt tad apyasat || Ibid., p., 16.

² Ibid., Com., p. 19.

to the insane. Its nature can only be intuited by transcending all subjectivity and objectivity—and this transcending the duality is perfect extinction. The law of Karma is strictly observed here; and a future birth always results as the fruition of the activities of the former life which remain recorded in the form of vāsanā and samskāra. But a saint, who has intuited the absolute truth, is not affected thereby and is free from the projecting rebirth. The realisation of the śūnyatā-nature of things is the only way to perfect purity, and this reality realised in the śūnyatā is synonymous with the 'thatness' (tathatā) of things, the totality of things (bhūta-koṭi), the uncaused (animitta), the highest truth (paramārthatā) and the ultimate element of things (dharma-dhātu).

The Abhūta-parikalpa has often been described in the Madhyanta-vibhaga-tika as pure consciousness, but this nature of the ultimate reality as pure consciousness has not sufficiently been emphasised. This emphasis is to be found in the Vijňapti-mātratā-siddhi of Ācārya Vasubandhu, which begins with the proposition that all the three elements are at bottom pure consciousness-and all the phenomena are as much unreal as the illusion of hair and moons to a person with defective eyes. But how then to explain the spatio-temporal laws, the law of the experiential series, and the laws of duties? The reply is that all the laws are formed as in dream. For, even in dream we perceive something specific in some particular space and time without there being any real object of experience. The universality of experiential series is also to be taken as in the case of the ghosts (pretas); they all see in hell rivers full of pus though there is actually nothing there. The laws of duties are like the night-discharges which happen without there being any real activity.

The question here may be,—if all forms $(r\bar{u}pa)$ and fields of experiences $(\bar{a}yatana)$ be nothing but pure consciousness, how is it that the Lord himself spoke of

them? The reply is that the Lord spoke of them only to teach the lay disciples of low intellectual calibre—but in speaking of them he had an ultimate intention (abhiprāya). In reality the rūpas and āyatanas are nothing but the manifestation of the dormant seeds in consciousness (vijñapti). These instructions of the Lord were ultimately intended for making the disciples realise the non-entity of the self (pudgala-nairātmya) and the non-entity also of the things (dharma-nairātmya). But by this non-entity is not meant any nihilism; non-entity is spoken only of the nature of things as the perceiver and the perceived (grāhya-grāhaka), but not of the nature of things as intuited by the perfectly enlightened ones.

As for our perceptions which are generally taken to be the best evidence for the existence and nonexistence of things, it may be said that they are mental constructions as in the dream. In dream there is neither the real object nor the senses to perceive them, yet there is the perception; so also is the case with all our perceptions which we falsely take to be the direct copies of the thing itself. It may, however, be argued that our dream-perceptions presuppose the memory of the real perception; but the reply is that our memory itself, instead of being the representation of the perception of the real object, may as well be a mere modification of consciousness. Again, it may be objected, that if perception of our conscious life be as false as that of our dreams, how is it that we ourselves are not conscious of this illusory nature of our perceptions in the same way as we ourselves are conscious of the falsity of our dream-perception. The reply is that as a man cannot be conscious of the falsity of his dreamexperiences unless he awakes from his sleep, so also, people, who are engrossed in the sleep of false imaginations, habits and the mental complexes (vāsanā), cannot realise the illusory nature of their experiences unless they open their eyes in the flash of enlightenment.

Our ignorance is the ultimate support of our vāsanās and the vāsanās in their turn are responsible for the imagination of the subjective and the objective world,—and this subjectivity produces our moral hindrances through the veil of passions and attachment (kleśā-varaṇa), and objectivity produces the veil of the knowable (jñeyā-varaṇa); by tearing off this veil of passion we attain omniscience and by removing the veil of the knowable we attain liberation. The reality is both the absence of the notion of ego (pudgala-nairātmya) and of the notion of all things (dharma-nairātmya)—it is only pure consciousness (vijñapti-mātratā).

The transformation of consciousness (vijñāna-parināma) has three stages, viz., (i) fruition (vipāka) of the root-instincts (vāsanā), (ii) mentation (manana) and (iii) objects of awareness (vijñapti-viṣaya). Through the fruition of the inherent root-instincts there follow the waves of mentation which are responsible for the appearance of the objective world. The Ālaya-vijñāna, from which follow all subjectivity and objectivity, is but a transformation of the eternal root-instincts which lie in the consciousness as dormant seeds. The Ālaya-vijñāna literally means the abode or support (ālaya) of all mentation (vijñāna). It has been explained both as the receptacle where everything is connected as effect, and as the prima causa in things. But if besides the world of our active

Some, of course, may hold that if there be no soul-substance as the ultimate reality, there cannot be any attribution (upacāra) of qualities. In reply the Vijnānavādins argue that the view that the objective world is an attribution of the soul-substance cannot be accepted on any logical ground. Moreover, the quintessence of any such soul-substance can neither be known nor be spoken of; and we cannot establish the truth of any reality which is neither knowable nor speakable. What we know and speak of is the world of our constructive imagination which has its origin in pure consciousness.

² atha vālīyante upanibadhyante' smin sarva-dharmāh kāryabhāvena |

yad vā līyate upanibadhyate kāraņa-bhāvena sarva-dharmesv ity ālayah ||

Vijnapti-mātratā-siddhi, com. on the Trimśikā. Lévi's Edition, p. 78.

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consciousness (pravrtti-vijñāna) there be an all-conserving mind (Alaya-vijñāna) it must have a form ; the reply is that the Alaya-vijñāna is of the form of an illimitable support (aparicchinnālambanā-kāra)—we only see it manifested as the internal categories and the external categories; but the nature of these categories cannot be determined. In the Alaya-vijñāna there remain, in the form of the root-instincts (vāsanā), the potencies of both the ego with the internal categories and the external world of objects; and these potencies project themselves as the fruition of the root-instincts as subjectivity and objectivity in an inherent law of deep harmony. But why should we admit the reality of any such transcendental support of the subjective and objective world when we cannot determine the nature of their potencies in their original abode (ālaya)? Because, all schools of thought will agree that even when the subjective and objective world is not (as in the state of deep sleep), the existence of the consciousness cannot be denied. This Alaya-vijñana is no eternal and unchanging principle-it is like an unceasing flow of water which glides on and on through the evolution of cause and effect.

Thus it is clear that anything and everything that is imagined to be existent, does not exist by itself as any real entity; everything is but the transformation of consciousness, and it is the original seed of all, as it possesses the potency of producing them all. All these imaginations, which are all conditional (pratyayo-

Cf. Also:—ālīyante sarve sāsravā dharmās tatra phala-bhāvena tac ca teşu hetu-bhāvenety ālayaḥ |

Madhyānta-vibhāga-tīkā. Lévi's Edition, p. 32.

¹ vijñāna-parināmo'yam vikalpo yad vikalpyate | tena tan nā'sti tene'dam sarvam vijñapti-mātrakam ||

Ibid., Verse 17.

² tatra sarva-dharmo-tpādana-śakty-anugamāt sarva-bījam. Ibid., p. 36.

dbhava) are relative in nature (paratantra-svabhāva), in the absolute state (parinispatti) there is neither the subject (grāhaka) nor the object (grāhya),-it is like the pure sky above. The nature of the dharmas may thus be described in three ways; as the product of constructive imagination (parikalpita), as relative or conditional (paratantra) and as absolute (parinispanna). Now, parikalpanā being the product of imagination cannot constitute the real nature of things; in paratantra things have only dependent nature, which cannot be real; but in the absolute nature things are neither ens nor non-ens; this absolute nature can only be somehow indicated as the 'thatness' (tathatā) of things, and this 'thatness' of things is nothing but pure consciousness. When our psychosis thus gets rid of subjectivity as well as objectivity and remains steady in pure consciousness, the highest knowledge is produced which is supra-mental, uncognisible and transcendental; it is the involution of the Alaya-vijñāna through the eradication of the two veils (of passion and ignorance); that is the immutable element which is beyond the reach of all mentation ;it is all-good, permanent, perfect bliss-of the form of liberation-it is the substance itself.

(D) AFFINITY WITH VEDANTA

The metaphysical dialectics of the Śūnyavādin and the Vijñānavādin Buddhists prepared the ground for the monistic conception of the ultimate reality of the Vedāntins. The task of destroying the older doctrines was undertaken and very ably done by the Buddhists,

Cf. also Mahāyāna-sūtrālankāra.

Ch. XI, Verses 38-41.

² acitto'nupalambho'sau jäänam loko-ttaraäca tat |
äśrayasya parävrttir dvidhä daustulya-hänitah ||
sa evä'näsravo dhätur acintyah kuśalo dhruvah |
sukho vimukti-käyo'sau dharmākhyo'yam mahāmuneh ||
Vijāapti-mātratā-siddhi, Verses 29-80.

but the work of building up the edifice of a constructive system was left for the Vedantins to undertake. Nāgārjuna, as we have already seen, frankly confessed that he had no thesis to prove, his only business was to contradict others. The Vijnanavadins, however, were not uncompromising negativists, but their positive standpoint is also not very clear and firm; it was left for Ācārya Śankara to draw the logical conclusions from the data supplied by the Buddhists. The exact position of Nagarjuna is rather difficult to understand. His opponents, viz., the Vijñānavādins and the Vedāntins have always criticised his Sūnyavāda as pure nihilism; but his śūnyatā also admits the interpretation of an absolute transcendental reality always escaping the grasp of intellectual comprehension and verbal exposition,-and in this way it may be said to have assimilated the Brahman of the Upanisads and anticipated the Brahman of the Vedantins. The general attitude of Buddha and the Buddhists towards the ontological problem does not seem to be any clear-cut negation, -but a policy of silence; and this attitude of silence towards the ontological problem is no freak in the evolution of Indian religious thought. The Upanisads and the Advaita Vedanta of Sankara also took the same device of silence as to the nature of the realisation of the Brahman. The same attitude has often been taken by the European Sceptics and the Agnostics. As Professor Steherbatsky puts it,- 'In many systems, ancient and modern, eastern and western, the reality in itself, the pith of reality is declared to be something incognisable. It is, therefore, quite natural to find in the Sūtra literature, where the style of popular discourses is adopted, the device of impressing upon the audience the mystic character of the Absolute by silence. The Mahāyāna-sūtras do not tarry in characterising it as "unspeakable", "undefinable", etc.1

¹ The Conception of Buddhist Nirvana, p. 22.

In the chapter on the nature of Nirvāṇa in the Mādhyamika-vṛtti of Nāgārjuna, we find the nature of things (dharmas) described as:—

avāco'nakṣarāḥ sarva-śūnyāḥ śāntādinirmalāh.

All the dharmas are unspeakable, unchanging, allvoid, quiescent and pure. Nāgārjuna himself has elsewhere admitted that the reality is neither void nor nonvoid, but it is called void only with the purpose of indicating it somehow. It is not absolutely impossible to infer 'something' out of this 'nothing' of the Sunyavādins. The Tathatāvāda of Aśvaghosa also admits the Tathatā-nature of things to be something substantial, permanent and unchanging, it is also something positive. The Yogacara-school's conception of the reality as the Abhūta-parikalpa or as pure consciousness (vijñapti-mātra) drives us very near to the Vedāntic conception of the ultimate reality as the Nirguna (qualitiless) Brahman who transcends all knowledge, knower and the knowable. It has always been vehemently argued by the Vijñānavādins that śūnyatā was never spoken of by the Lord as pure nothing; while it is the negation of all duality, it implies at the same time the reality of the Abhūta-parikalpa, which is pure consciousness-unchanging, unthinkable, all-good, eternal, all bliss, the ultimate element of the nature of salvation. Again in the docetic conception of the Trikāya in the Mahāyāna system the Dharma-kāya or the body of the cosmic unity, or the organised totality of things, though not as a purely philosophical concept, but as an object of religious consciousness, seems to be just the same as that of the idea of the Nirguna Brahman of the Upanisads.

So it seems that as time was passing on, Buddhist philosophy began to come more and more in contact with the Upaniṣadic literature and through its influence began to be more and more positive regarding the ontological problem,—and we are not quite sure if we

¹ Mādhyamika-vṛtti. Lévi's Edition, p. 589.

shall be far off from the truth if we assert that the Advaita-vedanta of Sankara with its colourless Brahman contradicting all the empirical realities is in its turn the culmination of the evolution of the Upanisadie Buddhistie thought. Professor Radhakrishnan has gone so far as to say that 'Buddhism is only a later phase of the general movement of thought of which the Upanisads were the earlier.' He also quotes the authority of Professor Max Müller, who says that 'Many of the doctrines of the Upanisads are no doubt pure Buddhism, or rather Buddhism is on many points the consistent carrying out of the principle laid down in the Upanisads.' We may further add to it that the revival of the Brahminic thought again in its turn had its stand on the systems of Buddhistic thought. Gaudapada flourished after the advent of all the great exponents of Buddhism and 'there is sufficient evidence in his kārikā for thinking that he was possibly himself a Buddhist, and he considered that the teachings of the Upanisads tallied with those of Buddha.' It has also been justly pointed out that at the beginning of the fourth chapter of his kārikā on the Māndūkyo-panisad Gaudapā adores Buddha with much reverence.

Gaudapāda has expounded all his views in a commentary on the Māndūkyo-paniṣad. He admits the ultimate reality to be a soul-reality, but this soul-reality (ātman) in its last or the highest stage is neither the internal cognitive processes, nor the external knowledge, nor is it the knowledge of the

2 Ibid., p. 470.

¹ Indian Philosophy, Vol. I, p. 470.

A History of Indian Philosophy—by Dr. S. N. Dasgupta, Vol. I, p. 423.

^{*} jñānenā'kāśa-kalpena dharmān yo gagano-pamān |
jñeyā-bhinnena sambuddhas tam bande dvipadām varam ||
Gauḍapāda's Comm. on Māṇḍūkyo-paniṣat.
Anandāśrama-granthavali series,
p. 146.

both; neither is it awareness, nor the mere contentless consciousness; it is neither conscious nor unconscious. It is unseen, unrelationable, ungraspable, indefinable, unthinkable, unspeakable, the essence as oneness with the self, the extinction of all phenomenalisation, the quiescent, the good, it is the one.1 The omniscient wise in the final stage knows neither himself nor others,-he knows neither the real-nor the unreal, -he knows nothing at all. The phenomenal world is like a creation in dream; it never existed in the beginning,-it will never exist at the end,-it cannot exist in the present. All the unreals are seeming to be real. The world of differences, the plurality of the selves-all are as much unreal as the imagination of the rope as a snake in the dark night. In the deepest intuition all the differences of forms and selves vanish and what remains is one Brahman.

From an impartial examination of these general views of Gaudapāda we may say that his metaphysical position is not something essentially different from the

standpoint of the Yogacarins.

What was out-lined by Gaudapāda in his Kārikā attained its full development in the hand of his worthy successor Ācārya Śaṅkara. Although in the course of his commentary on the Brahma-sūtras, he has often quarrelled with the Buddhists, yet we may say that the net result achieved is but a rehabilitation of the Upaniṣadic spirit in and through the metaphysical arguments of the different schools of Buddhism.

The literature of this period, breathes in general the same philosophical spirit as is found in the Vedānta and the Yogācāra Buddhism. In the Yogavāśiṣṭha we often find an echo of the Buddhist idealists in holding

Ibid., p. 40.

¹ nā¹ntaḥ-prajñam na bahiḥ-prajñam no¹bhayataḥ prajñam | adṛṣṭam avyavahāryam agrāhyam alakṣaṇam acintyam avyapadeṣ́yam ekātma-pratyaya-sāram prapañco-paṣ́amam ṣāntam ṣ̂ivam advaitam ||

² Ibid., p. 47, Verse 12.

the external world of diversity to be merely a construction of mind. It has often been held in univocal language that the notion of the ego is purely an illusion, and the illusion of the world is but an evolution of the consciousness (cid-vivarta), and the original cause of this illusion and evolution is ignorance (avidyā) and the cessation of it is the real liberation. Neither the ego (aham) nor the non-ego (anaham) is real,—both of them are illusions based on our ignorance.

Ch. VI, p. 12.

¹ Yogavāśiṣṭha, Vol. I, Ch. 27, Verses 34-35. ² Ibid., Vol. II. Nirvāṇa-prakaraṇam, Uttarārddham.

CHAPTER II

Unsystematised Philosophical Fragments Found In The Buddhist Tantras

Fragments of Mahāyānic philosophical ideas lie scattered in the Buddhist Tantras sometimes as speculations on the nature of the truth and mainly in the context of the ceremonies and secret Yogic practices. In adopting Mahāyāna Buddhism and the cognate monistic thought the Buddhist Tantras show little power of assimilation and systematisation. The loose speculations show a marked mixture of ideas, and the concepts are freely used more often in their traditional vagueness than in their precise philosophical connotation. The study of these philosophical fragments has no value by itself, for, as we have said, they say nothing new. The really important and interesting study will be the study of the history of the transformation of these philosophical ideas into esoteric theology and doctrines and their association with the esoteric practices with which the Tantras in general abound. Nevertheless, we are giving below some specimen of philosophical discussions from some of the representative Buddhist Tantras just to give the reader an idea as to how they occur in these texts.

The Tattva-ratnāvalī¹ of Pandit Advayavajra (popularly known as Avadhūtipā) sub-divides the Yogācārins into (i) the Sākāravādins and (ii) the Nirākāravādins, and the Mādhyamika school also is sub-divided into (i) the Māyo-pamā-dvaya-vāda and (ii) Sarva-dharmā-pratisthāna-vāda. It affiliates both the Śrāvaka-yāna and the Pratyeka-Buddha-yāna to the Vaibhāṣika school; the Sautrāntika, Yogācāra and the Mādhyamika schools are all said to belong to Mahā-

¹ Collected in the Advaya-vajra-samgraha, edited by MM. H. P. Sästri. (G.O.S., No. XL.)

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yāna. The Mahāyāna school has been further divided here into (i) the *Pāramitānaya* (including the Sautrāntika, Yogācāra and the Mādhyamika schools) and (ii) *Mantranaya*; the nature of the latter is left unexplained because of its profound and subtle character. There is an attempt in the text at explaining the characteristic features of the sub-schools; but the whole account given here is extremely confused and the views of Sankara and Bhāskara have been presented incidentally in a rather perverted and confused way.

In the Tattva-prakāśa (of the same author) we find a preference for the Mādhyamika thought to the Yogācāra. Though the Yogācārins hold the world to be as unreal as the perception of the locks of hair in space by a man with retinal defects, yet they speak of the reality of Vijñāna; but even in this theory of Vijñāna there remains scope for confusion. The Mādhyamika school, on the other hand, transcends all the four possible logical alternatives leaving no further scope for confusion.

In the Apratiṣṭhāna-prakāśa (of the same author and collected in the Advaya-vajra-samgraha) also there is a preference for the Mādhyamika faith. It is said that consciousness cannot hāve existence for the past, present and the future,—and therefore the absolute essencelessness even of consciousness has been spoken of by the Lord. The origination of the dharmas is incomprehensible and therefore it is called śūnyatā. In the Yuganaddha-prakāśa (in the same collection) it has been said that anything that manifests itself should be known to be in its nature pure knowledge without any change or corruption,—for, in the ultimate nature everything is śūnya which is pure knowledge. As fire belongs neither to that against which anything is rubbed, nor to the churning rod, nor to the hands of the

¹ Advaya-vajra-samgraha, Tattva-ratnăvalı, p. 21.

² Ibid., p. 46, Verse 7. ³ Ibid., p. 48, Verse 6.

operator,—but it is produced with reference to all these factors, so also is the case with all origination. Thus, because of this dependent origination, all the dharmas are non-essential and illusory like the magic. Because of the non-essential character there is the non-production of the dharmas and because of the cause and conditions there is also the non-destructibility of the dharmas; so there is neither existence nor non-existence,—existence and non-existence always appear in perfect union. The same non-essential nature of the world has been spoken of in the Mahāyāna-vimśikā.

The Prajñopāya-viniścaya-siddhi of Ananga-vajra begins like the Madhyanta-vibhaga-tika with the assertion that all existence comes from the absolute wherein there is no imaginary construction of existence, '-and . from this false mental construction come all the pangs of sufferings. False notions give rise to the cycle of birth and death which is at the bottom of all miseries. So long as there is this false mental construction none can do any good either to himself or to others. So, to attain perfect bliss either for the self or for the three worlds, the wise must first of all do away with this notion of existence. But the author warns that after destroying the notion of existence one should not go to the opposite extreme of adopting the nihilistic view. It is better to have the imagination of existence (bhavakalpanā) than that of non-existence (abhāva-kalpanā); for, the burning lamp can be extinguished; but if it be not burning at all how can it be extinguished? ' If there be the notion of bhava, there remains the possiability of nirvāna,-but if there be no notion of bhāva or samsāra, how can there be nirvāņa or final extinc-

2 Ibid., p. 49, Verse 7.

Ibid., p. 54.
 Prajňopāya-viniścaya-siddhi.

Advaya-vajra-samgraha, p. 49, Verses 2, 3.

⁽G.O.S., Vol. No. XLIV), Ch. I, Verse 3.

nirvāti įvalito dipo nirvṛtaḥ kām gatim vrajet

Ibid., Ch. I, Verse 1.

tion? There is no possibility of annihilating the beginningless vacuity. Here the contention of the author seems to be that our moral struggle for our final purification and perfection presupposes a world of objectivity and it is for this reason that for the final purification it is wiser to have even a false positive notion about the objective world than a purely negative notion which leaves no scope for morality. But we may mention here that this question did not escape the eyes of the so-called negativists, and Nagarjuna in his Mādhyamika-vṛtti did answer the question definite-

ly in his own way. 1

It is, however, urged here that as the illusory notion of existence should be abandoned, so also should be abandoned the notion of non-existence. He, who abandons the idea of both the real and the unreal, attains a state which is neither samsāra nor nirvāna, and this is pure knowledge (prajñā). In the chapter on the meditation on truth (tattva-bhāvanā) it has been said that he who realises the truth and meditates on it neither sinks deep in the unfathomable ocean of samsāra, nor does he remain in his narrow selfish nirvāņa. In realising the truth one should meditate neither on the void (śūnyatā) nor on the non-void (aśūnyatā),-he should abandon neither the void nor the non-void. In the taking of either śūnyatā or aśūnuatā there are involved innumerable false constructions,-even in their abandonment there is the mental function of determination; so this taking up and giving up should both be avoided. When the conception of the egohood (ahamityesa sankalpah) does not determine itself in the negative manner as non-void or in the positive manner as void it becomes bereft of all its basis of thought: the wise, therefore, without any attachment and desire, absolutely sinless, unruffled in

¹ Ibid., Ch. I, Verse 10.

³ Vide, Mādhyamika-vṛtti, p. 53. Lévi's Edition.

mind and freed from the constructive imagination of a beginning or an end, should consider himself as pure

vacuity.

The exact nature of samsāra and nirvāna has very nicely been described in two verses at the end of this chapter. Samsāra is nothing but a condition of our mind (citta) which is overpowered with the darkness of innumerable mental constructions and which is as fleeting as the fickle flash of lightning in the storm, and which is besmeared with the almost ineffaceable stains of passions, etc. On the other hand, nirvāna is a stage of the same citta, which is effulgent, free from all constructions, from which all blemishes of passions etc. have been obliterated, where there is neither the perceiver nor the perceived.

The Jñāna-siddhi also asserts that the ultimate thuth is neither positive nor negative; for, in the positive there is possibility of all the defects (sarva-doṣa-prasaṅga) and in the negative there is no way left for the relief of all sorrow. Pure knowledge is neither with any form (sākāra) nor is it formless (nirākāra). Had knowledge any form, it would have been saṁskṛta

prabhañjano-nmatta-tadic-calam ca |

rāgādi-durvāra-malā-valiptam

cittam hi samsāram uvaca vajrī || prabhāsvaram kalpanayā vimuktam

prabhāsvaram kaipanāya vimaktum prahīna-rāgādi-mala-pralepam

grāhyam na ca grāhakam agrastīvam tad eva nirvāna-varam jagāda |

Ch. IV, Verses 22-23.

These two verses and many other verses of the preceding chapters of this text are also found in the chapter on Prajňo-pāya-bhāvanā (second chapter of the second section) of the Sampuṭikā or the Sampuṭo-dbhava-kalpa-rāja. Vide MS. R.A.S.B., No. 4854; MS. pp. 14B, 15A, 15B.

3 Jāānasiddhi (published under the head of Two Vajrayāna

Works) (G.O.S.), Ch. I, Verses 19-20.

¹ Ibid., Ch. IV, Verses 7-8. Similar ideas are found in many of the Tantras all of which need not be quoted here extensively.

² analpa-sankalpa-tamo'bhibhūtam

^{&#}x27; Ibid., Ch. XII, Verses 3-4.

(conditional and defiled) as all existence is. ' Had knowledge, on the other hand, been absolutely formless, there would have remained no possibility for becoming omniscient,-and without omniscience there would be no possibility of universal compassion. A distinction is drawn here between ordinary knowledge (jñāna) and the knowledge of the highest truth (tattvajāāna). The distinction is ultimately the same as that between Prajñā (the knowledge of the vacuity) and Bodhicitta (the combination of both Praina and Karunā). The former (i.e., jñāna, prajñā) however is nirvikalpa, i.e., free from all the false constructions; but the latter tattva-jñāna should never be taken as the complete cessation of consciousness (niścittatā); for in the tattva-jñāna there is the existence of universal compassion (karunā-bhāva).

In the Śrīguhya-samāja-tantra it has been said about the nature of the dharmas that the dharmas do not belong to the kāmadhātu (world of desire) nor to the rūpadhātu (material world) nor to the arūpadhātu (supernatural sphere of existence), neither do

¹ Ibid., Ch. III.

² Ibid., Ch. IV.

³ Ibid., Ch. V.

⁴ This text is edited by Dr. B. Bhattacharya, M.A., Ph.D., and is published in the Gaekwad's Oriental Series (Vol. LIII); it is taken by the editor to be the earliest text on the Vajrayana School of Buddhism and as such the most important of all the Vajrayana texts. Prof. M. Winternitz in reviewing this book in the Indian Historical Quarterly (Vol. IX., No. 1) says that this text published in the Gackwad's Oriental Series is not the same as the Tathagata-guhyasūtra quoted and referred to in Santideva's Sikṣā-samuccaya. Prot. Winternitz is loath to believe (and he also adduces reason for his position) that the Guhya-samāja (the text in question) is written by as great a personality and philosopher as Asanga, and he is not also ready to believe that the text belongs to as early a period as the 3rd or the 4th century A.D. We have our sympathy with Prof. Winternitz so far as the time and authorship of the text is concerned; but nevertheless, we must add that in many of the Buddhist Tantric texts we find reference to and quotations from this Srīguhya-samāja (or simply Śrīsamāja) and these quotations most often (though not always) tally with the text edited by Dr. Bhattacharya.

they belong to the four great elements. ' It has been said about the illusory nature of the dharmas that as the sky remains pervading all space, yet it is mixed up with nothing, neither is it unmixed ;-it is indescribable, invisible and cannot be proved in any way,-so is to be understood the nature of all the dharmas. This void-nature of the dharmas belongs to none of the three worlds (kāma, rūpa and a-rūpa),-and what is not in the three worlds cannot be produced and what cannot be produced cannot have any origination. Bodhicitta is said to be the producer of knowledge in all the Tathagatas; but this Bodhicitta remains neither in the body nor in the word nor in the mind; and what is not in these three elements cannot be produced. The function of the three elements (trai-dhātuka-kriyā) is like the dream, resembling the dream and originated in the dream. Thus all the Tathagatas, all the Buddhas of the ten quarters, all the Bodhisattvas and other beings-all are to be understood as in the dream.2 Just as the well-known cintāmani (wish-vielding) gem yields gold, silver and other riches as soon as one thinks of them, but these riches belong neither to the mind of the suitor, nor to the gem itself, yet they are produced; same is the case with the origination of all the dharmas.3 The Tathagatas asked the Lord Vairapāṇi,- Where do remain all the tathāgata dharmas and whence are they originated?' The reply of the Lord is,- 'They remain in the body, speech and mind of the Tathagata and are produced therefrom.' 'But where does the body-word-mind remain?' 'In the void (ākāśa)' replied the Lord. 'But where does remain the void?' 'Nowhere' is the emphatic reply.'

Āryadeva in his Citta-viśuddhi-prakarana, echoes the views of Yogācāra and Vedānta when he says that

¹ Ibid., Ch. IX, pp. 37-8.

² Ibid., Ch. XV, pp. 109, 110. ³ Ibid., p. 110; also see Ch. XVII.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 111-112. ⁵ Verses 67-68.

as the perception of silver in the shell is effaced only when one perceives it to be nothing but the shell, so all our ignorance vanishes after the realisation of the void (nairātmya-darśana); as the perception of the snake is contradicted by the perception of the rope as rope, so also all perceptions of phenomenalisation are contradicted by śūnyatā or adamantine knowledge (vajra-jñāna). The gem of mind is covered with the mud of beginningless thought-constructions; it shines forth when it is washed with the water of the knowledge of the void and the experience of universal compassion. 1

Padma-vajra in his Guhya-siddhi says that the wise should not think of existence; -but he should also shake off the idea of non-existence; in the conception of existence he has to admit the permanence of things; and the conception of non-existence involves extreme nihilism. The reality is free from both existence and non-existence-it is the supportless Nirvana purged of all blemishes: it is beyond the comprehension of even all the Buddhas who are endowed with the knowledge of the void nature,-in it there is neither the goer nor the going nor the place to be traversed: there is neither the thinker, nor the thought, nor the thinkable; it is inexpressible,-indiscernible,-free from the taker and the taken; it is indefinable, stainless-it is exclaimed to be the Nirvana. Thus the ultimate non-essential nature of the dharmas is its Nirvana nature and this

¹ Ibid., Verse 117.

² bhāvan na bhāvayed dhīmān abhāvam dūratas tyajet | ekasmin śāśvato grāhya itaratrā'pi śūnyatā ||

bhāvā-bhāva-vinirmuktam niṣpāditam anākūlam |
apratisthita-nirvāṇam nirdhūtā-seṣa-kalmaṣam ||
tan niḥsvabhāva-yuktānām buddhānām apy agocaram |
na tatra gantā gamanam gamyate yatra vā kvacit ||
bhāvako bhāvanā-bhāvo nā'bhavaḥ (?) paramārthataḥ |
avācyam anirūpyañ ca grāhya-grāhaka-varjitam ||
alakṣanam virajañ ca nirvāṇam tat pragīyate ||
Guhya-siddhi, MS. (C.L.B. No. 3/24), pp. 12(B)—13(A).

nature is not purely nihil; it is rather the 'thatness' of the things,—the cosmic oneness; it is the primordial source of all the dharmas, it is the seed of all entities. Its form is not known,—it is beyond the reach of speech,—it is beyond all sound, scent and taste,—it is beyond even the mind.¹ This ultimate truth is the knowledge, it is the pure dharma-dhātu as free from all phenomenalisation.² As the non-dual principle of supreme good the truth is pervading all the objects—all the universe.¹ It is neither one nor many, nor is it one and many at the same time; it is waveless, unmanifest-ed—all-pervading.⁴

As we have said, the philosophical fragments occur more often in connection with the rituals, ceremonies and esoteric yogic practices than independently. Meditation on the truth generally precedes all the ceremonies, rituals and yogic practices. All ceremonies and practices are absolutely useless until one attains a true perspective about the nature of all dharmas through meditation on the truth. In the Sādhana-mālā, which is a big collection of the Sādhana of various Tāntric Buddhist gods and goddesses with all the paraphernalia of rituals and ceremonies, the principles of both

¹ Ibid., MS. p. 18(B).

² sarva-prapañca-nirmuktam rūpam yat paramam śivam | dharma-dhātu-svabhāvā-khyam jñānam tad iha kirtitam | Ibid., MS. p. 16(A).

yat tattvam sarva-bhūtāni(nām?) grāhya- grāhake-varjitam | vyāpayitvā sthitam divyam sarvagam paramam sivam | Ibid., MS. p. 27(A).

^{*} na tad ekan na cā'nekam ekā-nekañ ca naiva tat | nistarangam nirābhāsam samsthito sarvato-mukham || Ibid., MS. p. 17(B).

In the same strain Kuddāla-pāda says in his Acintyā-dvaya-kramo-padeśa (also known as the Bhadra-pāda-krama according to the name of Bhadra-pāda, the preceptor of Kuddāla-pāda, MS. C.L.B., No. 13124) that meditative contemplation is nothing but viewing all things as 'unconstruct'. That which has neither any nature, nor any origination, nor any destruction, is the non-dual truth—it is perfect knowledge. Thought-construction is the outward world,—unconstruct is the adamantine truth of the nature of supreme bliss.

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3 13 1

Sūnyavāda and Vijnānavāda are mentioned cursorily in connection with the various parts of the sādhana.

In the Vajra-tārā-sādhanam it is prescribed that one should ponder over the nature of the dharmas, whose ultimate nature is the citta; the citta itself takes the illusory appearances of the varieties of the dharmas. As in dream there is no knowable outside the mind, and yet the mind perceives things, -so also is the case with the life-experiences. So, all the dharmas are made up of the substance of consciousness, and the absolute negation of the perceiver and the perceived is the ultimate reality.2 With this firm conviction the Sādhaka should do away with the illusory appearances of things and perceive their ultimate . nature as infinite non-dual pure consciousness, which is bright as pure crystal,-or the cloudless noon-day sky of the autumn. This is the transcendental knowledge of the void,-free from phenomenalisation and all thought-constructions.3

The Buddhist Tantras abound with mantras; and these mantras are often nothing but some cardinal truths representing Mahāyānic faith and philosophy. These mantras are to be chanted in the rites, ceremonies, meditations and also in connection with various Yogic practices.

¹ See Sādhana-mālā (G.O.S. No. XXVI), Vol. I, pp. 73, 98-94 and 146; Ibid., Vol. II, p. 398.

² Ibid., p. 225.

³ Ibid., p. 226.

This doctrine of Vijāānavāda is also found in the Khasarpaṇa-sādhanam (p. 39), Eka-jaṭā-sādhanam (p. 254) and here and there in some other places also. In the Ṣaḍakṣari-lokeśvara-sādhanam we find that the three elements should be realised as of the form as well as of the nature of magic illusion; all our visual and tactual perceptions are in the dream, as it were. (Ibid., p. 29; also pp. 105, 271). In another place it has been advised to think of the whole world as a magic—as a mirage—as a moon reflected in water. (Ibid., p. 183). All existence is to be thought of as void; for, there cannot be any definition of its nature; and as we cannot find out sufficient reason behind all existence it should be thought of as uncaused; the nature of existence always escapes intellectual comprehension. (Ibid., p. 170).



In the Pañca-karma of Nāgārjuna-pāda we find four gradations in the Śūnyatā doctrine. The first is Sūnya, the second Ati-śūnya, the third Mahā-śūnya, and the fourth or the final is the Sarva-śūnya,-and these are all different according to their cause and effect. 1 The first stage Sūnya has been explained as light (āloka) ; it is knowledge (prajāa), and the mind remains active in it,-it is relative (paratantra) by nature.3 In this stage mind has got as many as thirtythree impure states (dosa) associated with it. These are sorrow, fear, hunger, thirst, feeling (vedanā), sympathy (sama-vedanā), self-analysis (pratyaveksā), kindness (kārunya), affectionateness (sneha-tantraka), fickleness (cakita), doubt (samśaya), jealousy (mātsarya), etc. ' This mental stage Sunya has been called the woman (stri), and it has been said that of all illusions the illusion of the woman is the greatest. 5 It is also called the left (vāma) and the lotus in the lunar circle ; it is said to be the first vowel to indicate its adamantine nature. 6

The second stage, viz., Ati-śūnya is said to be the manifestation of light (ālokābhāsa), it shines like moon-rays and it proceeds from the former (āloka-jñāna), and while Śūnya is said to be Prajñā, Ati-śūnya is said to be the Upāya, or the means. It is also said

Cf. prajño-tpanna alokah pradurbhūtah

¹ śūnyañ ca atiśūnyañ ca mahāśūnyaṁ tṛtīyakam | caturthaṁ sarva-śūnyañ ca phala-hetu-prabhedataḥ || Pañca-krama. MS. (B.N. No. 65) p. 20(A).

Lalita-vistara (Ed. by Dr. S. Lefmam), pp. 417-18.

³ ā(*a' sic.)lokam śūnyam prajñā ca cittam ca paratantrakam |

MS. p. 20.

In the commentary also śūnya-prajňā is explained as lightśūnya-prajňā āloka iti yāvat. MS. (B.N. No. 66) p. 43(B). * Ibid., MS. p. 20(B).

⁵ stri-samijā ca tathā proktā mandā-kāras tathaiva ca Ibid., MS. p. 20(B).

Also sarvesām māyānām strī-māyaiva višisyate | Ibid., MS. p. 21(A).

^{*} vāma-sanijāā (m, sic.) punaš caiva candra-mandala-pankajam | drdhīkarana-hetutvāt sa binduh pratha(mah) svarah || Ibid., MS. p. 20(B).

to be of the nature of constructive imagination (parikalpita) and it belongs to the mind as its (mind's) states (caitasika). It is also said to be the right (dakṣiṇa), the solar circle (sūrya-mandala) and the thunderbolt (vajra). There are forty momentary mental states of defilement, associated with it. These are passion, contentment, joy, pleasure, wonder, patience, valour, pride, energy, courage, greed, shamelessness, cunning, wickedness, crookedness, etc. ' The third stage, viz., Mahā-śūnya proceeds from the union of Prajñā and Upāya or āloka and ālokābhāsa, or Sūnya and Ati-śūnya, and it is called the intuition of light (ālokopalabdhi) and is of the absolute nature (parinispanna),-yet it is called ignorance (avidyā). It has also been said to be the Svādhisthāna-citta. There are seven impure mental states of defilement (prakrti-dosa) associated with it,-these are forgetfulness (vismrti), illusion (bhrānti), stupor, laziness, etc. Thus āloka, ālokābhāsa and āloko-palabdhi-these are the three stages of the citta and from them there follow the principles of impurities which number hundred and sixty in all (eighty in total, but doubled in day and night), and they function throughout the whole day and night with the flow of the vital wind (vāyu)

¹ niśākarā-msu-sankāśa āloka-jñāna-sambhavah | ālokā-bhāsam ity uktam atisūnyam upāyakam || parikalpitam tathā proktam proktam caitasikam tathā | Ibid., MS. p. 20(B).

² Ibid., MS. p. 21(A).

³ catvārimsat prakṛtayah kṣanikās cā'tisūnyatāh | Ibid., MS. p. 21(A).

^{*} Ibid., MS. p. 21(A).

^{*} ālokasyo'palabdhiś ca upalabdham tathaiva ca| parinispannakañ caiva avidyā caiva nāmatah || Ibid., MS. p. 21(A).

See commentary on Songs Nos. 12 and 44. Bauddha-gāna-o-dohā, edited by MM. H. P. Sāstri, pp. 23 and 68.

Cf. also: -svasyā'dhisthānam svādhisthānam / prajño-pāyā-tmakavijñāno-umilanam ity arthah |

Pañcakrama-tippani. MS. p. 46(B).

which has been said to be the vehicle (vāhana) through which these impurities of nature (prakrti-dosa) function. 1 It has been said, wherever there is the (function of the) bio-motor force or the vital wind, nature (prakrti) with all her impurities is also brought along with it; and so long as there is the function of this bio-motor force or the vital wind, the principles of impurity will not cease to function. 2 As the function of this vital wind goes on day and night, the principles of impurities also function always. In the Sunya stage the vāvu remains mixed up with thought; in the next stage thought predominates over this vayu and the third stage is a mixture of both the previous stages. Though knowledge is pure consciousness and is of indeterminate nature like that of the sky, yet there are differences in knowledge as there are differences in the sky in twilight, night and day.

The fourth stage, viz., Sarva-śūnya (all-void or perfect void) is free from all the three-fold impurities and is self-illuminant. It is called perfect-void because of its absolute purity obtained by transcending these principles of defilement. It is the purified knowledge—the ultimate truth—it is the supreme omniscience. It is without change—without appearance, without duality—it is the supreme good. Whether it is any state of existence or non-existence cannot be known; it is beyond the scope of verbal expression. From this self-luminous purity, which results from the three preceding stages, proceeds the Omniscient (Buddha) endowed with all possible merits, all the thirty-two signs of

tetāh prakṛtayah sū(ś. sic.)kṣmāh śatam ṣaṣṭyu-ttaram divā | rātrau cāpi pravartante (tate. sic.) vāyu-vāhana-hetunā | Ibid., MS. pp. 21(A), 21(B).

yatra yatra sthito väyus tam tam prakṛtim udvahet | yāvat samirano-tpādo (ho. sic.) nābhāso niścalo bhavet | Ibid., MS. p. 21(B).

^{*} samvitti-mātrakam jñānam ākāšavad alakṣaṇam | kintu tasya prabhedo'sti sandhyā-rātri-divā-tmanā | Ibid., MS. p. 21(B).

greatness and also the eighty consonants. In the Abhisambodhi-krama of Pañca-krama it has been said, Perfect void may be said to be without beginning or with beginning, without middle or with middle,—without end or with end: this is what the wise say." Here there is neither going nor not-going, neither decrease nor increase, neither existence nor non-existence. It is free from the categories of either being or non-being,—it is neither of the nature of merit nor of the nature of demerit,—nor is it a combination of both.

We have seen above how the Sūnyatā-doctrine of the Mahāyānic philosophers was adopted by the esoteric Buddhists; but the emphasis of Mahāyāna is not only on Sūnyatā; as a religion it is characterised by its stress on universal compassion. This Mahāyāna doctrine of compassion was also adopted by these Tāntric Buddhists in toto. All the preachings, all the rites and ceremonies, all the mystic practices have the stamp of Karuṇā on them, i.e., everything is said to be undertaken only with the view to saving the world from all miseries. We have seen in the Bodhi-caryāvatāra how the devout Bodhisattva was earnestly praying to all the enlightened ones, bent on entering

¹ śūnya-traya-viśuddhir yo prabhāsvaram iho'cyate ||
sarva-śūnya-padam tac ca jñāna-traya-viśuddhitaḥ |
jñāna-śuddhi-padam tattvam sarvajñatvam anuttaram ||
nuvikāram nirābhāsam nirdvandvam paramam śivam |
asti'ti na ca nā'sti'ti na ca tad vākya-gocaram ||
ataḥ prabhāsvarāt śuddhāt jñāna-traya-samudbhavaḥ |
đvā-trimśal-lakṣaṇa-dharo hy ašīti-vyañjanā-nvitaḥ |
sarvā-kāra-varo-petaḥ sarvajño jāyate tataḥ ||
Ibid., MS. pp. 22(B), 23(A).

^{*} onādi-bhūtam tv athavā'di-bhūtam amadhya-bhūtam atha madhya-bhūtam |

ananta-bhūtam tv athavānta-bhūtam sarva-sūnyam pravadanti santāh | Ibid., MS. p. 30(A).

yad asti-nasti-vyavahāra-muktam na puņya-rūpam na ca pāpa-rūpam

na punya-pāpā-tmakam agra-bhūtam tat sarva-šūnyam pravadanti buddhāh || Ibid., MS. p. 30(A).

nirvāņa, not to accept nirvāņa until the suffering world be saved from the miseries of life and every one be helped in realising perfect wisdom. We find a very beautiful echo of it in the Jñāna-siddhi where all the compassionate Buddhas are solicited not to accept their own nirvānā, but to wait on and on until all the creatures attain perfect Buddhahood. In the Sadhanamālā we find it an essential part of many of the sādhanas to pray to the Buddhas and the Bodhisattvas, bent on attaining nirvana, to wait for time eternal for the benefit of all beings. The Buddhas, who are the fathers of the afflicted helpless beings, are requested to postpone their nirvana and to preach the true religion among all the beings until they are enabled to cross the sea of samsāra and attain perfect bliss. The aspirer is found not only to pray to the Buddhas and the Bodhisattvas to renounce their nirvana,-but he himself also renounces his own nirvana and pledges his life for the benefit of all beings. It is said-"I have deceived all the beings-how shall I save them (who are pitiable alas!) from this unfathomable sea of existence? Thus being filled with compassion for the beings, the aspirer should reject the śūnyatā which makes a man altogether static,-and through the effort of the mind he should produce a citta which is full of the dharma-dhātu. It is said in the Citta-viśuddhiprakarana of Arvadeva that great beings with sound wisdom and alert mind should win the fierce battle of life and then save others also. A beast also courts affliction for his own interest; but rare and blessed are those master minds who court affliction for the sake of the world. The wretched selfish creatures also bear the pains of cold and blast for their own sake,but why should they not do the same for the interest of the whole world? It is often seen, when a Sādhaka

¹ Ch. VIII.

² Sādhana-mālā, Vol. II, p. 344.

^{*} mahā-sattvo maho-pāyah sthira-buddhir atantritah | jitvā dustara-samgrāmam tārayed aparān api ||

is going to worship any god or goddess with all the paraphernalia of rituals and ceremonies, he takes, at the outset, the resolution that he will deliver all the beings and enable them to attain complete nirvāṇa.

Even in the description of the gods and goddesses we see that compassion is almost everywhere an attribute of them. We may, for instance, compare the description of the goddess Vārāhī as found in her meditation in the Abhidhāno-ttara, where she is described as having a heart melted with compassion for beings,—as engrossed in the emotion of universal compassion, bent on doing good to all beings.

It may also be noticed that almost all the Tantras are introduced with an apology of doing good to all the beings by the teachings of the true religion. The Ārya-mañjuśrī-mūla-kalpa-tantra introduces all the ceremonials and ritualistic practices—all the mantras and tantras as being instructed by the Lord Buddha himself only for the good of all beings. The Prajño-

paśavo'pi hi kliśyante svärtha-mātra-parāyanāh | jagad-artha-vidhātāro dhanyās te viralā janāh | śīta-vātā-di-duḥkhāni sahante svārtha-lampaṭāh | jagad-artha-pravṛttāste na sahante katham nu te ||

Citta-viśuddhi-prakarana, Verses 54-56.

² In the Srī-guhya-samāja Lord Manjuśrī is depicted as compassionate to the whole world and bent on doing good to all beings.

(Ch. XVII, p. 146, G.O.S.)

prajňo-pāya-samāpannā karunā-rāga-sammukhā |
sattvā-rtha-hetu-sambhūtā karunā-rdrena-cetasā ||
ganganā-bhoga-sambhogā mahā-karunā-raso-tsukā |
sat-trinšati-bhava-samsodhyā (?) sattvā-rtha-kṛta-tatparā ||
śūnyatā-jñāna-sambhūtā nirvikalpā nirālayā |
niḥsvabhāva-parā sūkṣmā vindu-nāda-vivarjitā ||

MS. pp. 48(B)—49(A).

4 Cf. also Mahāyāna-vimšikā,—'By whatever merit I have acquired through this, let all people be made bent on attaining the Bodhi' (quoted in the Advaya-vajra-samgraha). At the end of the Khasar-

In the Ṣaḍ-akṣarī-lokeśvara-sādhanam of the Sādhana-mālā we see that the Sādhaka is taking the vow of enabling all the beings—whatever be their origin, and be they endowed with form or be they without form,—be they conscious or unconcious,—to attain the anupādhi-śeṣa-samādhi (i.e., nirvāṇa without any residuum; cf. the nirupādhi-śeṣa-samādhi of the Mādhyamika-vṛtti, Nirvāṇa-prakaraṇa. Cf. also the Abhiṣeka-paṭala of the Heruka-tantra.)

pāya-viniścaya-siddhi also says that all truth was preached and explained by the great sages only with the purpose of rendering some help to the suffering world.

In initiating a disciple to the mystic cult for the attainment of the Bodhicitta the preceptor should first of all see that the disciple has a benevolent mind, and the Guru instructs the disciple to perform all the practices only for the benefit of the beings. To bear with

paṇa-sādhana of the Sādhana-mālā, the Sādhaka proclaims,—'By whatever merit is acquired by me by performing this sādhana of the lord of the world,—let the world attain the (ultimate) status.' Similar verses occur after the performance of many of the sādhanas. (See Sādhana-mālā, pp. 48, 75, 171, 206). Even the mystic circle is to be described for the welfare of the beings. [Kriyā-saṃgraha,

MS. p. 74(B)].

In the Sanskrit portion of the Dakarnava (edited by MM. H. P. Sāstri) the goddess Vārāhi entreats the lord Mahāvīreśvara to remove all her doubts and to explain to her all the secrets of Yoga for the good of the beings (kathayantu mama svāmī sattvānām upakārakam); to this the lord replies, - 'Propitiated am I, O goddess! I shall explain in detail all that will bring about the good of all beings, harken all with a concentrated mind.' (P. 137, Sāhityaparisat edition). In the production of the Bodhicitta, in the practices, rites and ceremonies, even in the sexo-yogic practice it has always been proclaimed that everything is done only for the good of all beings. Thus it is said in the Kudrsti-nirghātanam of the Advaya-vajra-samgraha, I shall produce the great Bodhicitta and shall lead and guide all the beings to the right path; I shall undergo all the practices for the attainment of Bodhi-and shall be the Buddha for the good of the world.' (Pp. 5-6; also see Sādhana-mālā, pp. 3, 29). In the Kriyā-samgraha (in the chapter on the production of the Bodhicitta) it is said, - By this meritorious work (kuśala-karma) soon shall I be a Buddha and I shall preach the truth for the good of the world and deliver the beings oppressed with miseries.'

grhītam sambaram krtsnam sarva-sattvā-rtha-kāranāt | atīrnān tārayisyāmi amuktān mocayāmy aham |

MS. (B.N. No. 31) p. 36(B).
anena cāhaṁ kuśalena karmaṇā
bhaveya buddho na cirena loke |

deseya dharmam jagato hitaya

moceya sattvān bahu-duḥkha-piditān || MS. (B.N. No. 31) p. 36(B). Also see Advaya-vajrasaṃgraha, p. 9.

² Cf. dīnoddhāraṇa-cittāya pradeyam divya-sādhanam || Jvālāvali-vojra-mālā-tantra. MS.

³ akhinna-vigatā-sangah sattvā-rtham kuru sāmpratam || MS." (R.A.S.B. No. 4854) p. 13(B).

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a calm unruffled spirit all sorts of mental and physical torture for the sake of the world was deemed to be a great virtue in Buddhism; as a result, we see that in the Tantras, as in Buddhism in general, it became a religious practice to inflict torture on the body. 1 It was also another practice to try to become one with the whole universe through repeated and deeply concentrated meditation and to perform the religious practices or the Yoga after one had realised oneself completely identical with the universe, so that after this identification of the self with the universe any merit acquired by the Sadhaka would be a merit acquired by the whole universe and the liberation of the self will be the liberation of the whole universe. . Through meditation first the universe must be identified with the self, so that there may be complete oneness of the self and the universe.2

In the songs and the *Dohās* of the Siddhācāryas we find this spirit of universal compassion expressed often in a very nice way. In the *Pākārṇava* the Sādhaka is requested first to realise the pain of bondage in the world and to meditate on the compassion for beings. It has been very nicely said by Sarahapāda in his *Dohās*,—"Whoever thinks this to be the self—this to be the other—perverts himself even in the absence of bondage and even though he is liberated.

Dakarnava-Ed. by Dr. N. N. Chaudhury, p. 122.

¹ Vide Advaya-vajra-samgraha, Ch. VIII. Also Sādhana-mālā, pp. 1, 57 (G.O.S.).

² śirasah padato vāpi yāvad dhṛdayam āgataḥ |
bhūta-koṭim viśet yogi piṇḍa-grāha iti smṛtaḥ |
sthāvaram jaṅgamam caiva pūrvam kṛtvā prabhāsvaram |
paścāt kuryāt tathā-tmānam anubheda-kramo'hyayam ||
śvāsa-vāto yathā'darśe layam gacchati sarvataḥ |
bhūta-koṭim tathā yogi praviśec ca muhurmuhuḥ ||
gacchams tiṣṭhan svayam (?) bhuñjann unmīṣan nimiṣan hasan |
anena dhyāna-yogena sadā tiṣṭhati tattvavit ||

Pañca-krama. MS. p. 30(B).

Cj. also, Śri-cakra-sambhāra-tantra—Ed. by Arthur Avalon, p. 72.

Also see Sādhana-mālā, p. 504 (G.O.S.).

^{*} loaņa karuņa bhavahu tumma/saala surāsura buddhahu jimma ||

Don't make the mistake of the self and the not-self; everything is of the nature of perfect enlightenment from time eternal,—this great lord of unblemished citta is pure by nature." "The great tree of non-dual mind spreads throughout the three worlds in its vastness; it contains flowers and fruits of compassion,—there is nothing beyond it." Saraha-pāda concludes with the verse,—"If no good to others is done,—no gift is given at all,—what is the need of living this life in the world at all? It is better to do away with it." This stress on Karuṇā in various ways is a characteristic feature also of the Caryā-padas.

¹ Dohākoṣa—Ed. by Dr. P. C. Bagchi, p. 22. (Many of these dohās are ascribed also to Tillopāda, see Ibid., p. 2).

² addaa citta-taruaraha gaü tihuvane vitthāra | karunā phullī-phala dharai nāü paratta ūāra || Ibid., p. 28.

³ para ūāra ņa kiaū atthi na diaū dāņa | chu samsāre kavaņa phalu varu chuddahu appāņa || Ibid., p. 23.

⁴ It is said by Kambalämbara-pāda in a song that his boat of karuṇā is filled with the gold of vacuity. (Song No. 8). In another song where Kaṇhu-pāda explains the esoteric doctrine by the metaphor of the chess-game, compassion has been made the play-board. (Song No. 12). Again in explaining the ultimate stage Kaṇhu-pāda says that he sees his body in compassion and vacuity. (Song No. 13). In the commentary of the Caryās the Siddhācāryas are said to have composed these songs through deep compassion for the beings. (See Comm. on Songs Nos. 1, 7, 8).

CHAPTER III SCHOOLS OF TANTRIC BUDDHISM

In describing the schools of esoteric Buddhism the best thing would have been to trace historically the origin and development of the various schools with their particular faiths, doctrines and practices; but the data for such a historical survey is so scanty and confused that we do not venture to make such an attempt. Dr. Benayatosh Bhattacarya in his Introduction to Buddhist Esoterism has of course made an attempt at constructing some sort of a history of the Vajrayānist and the Sahajiyā preachers; but so vast and confused is the field and so scanty and doubtful are the materials that the structure does not seem to be very well built. The same remark holds good for the attempt made by Dr. Shahidullah in tracing the history of the Sahajiyā Buddhist School in his work Les Chants Mystiques de Kanha et de Saraha.

(i) The Evolution Of Mantra-yana

In the Tattva-ratnāvalī (collected in the Advaya-vajra-saṃgraha) we find Mahāyāna sub-divided into two schools, viz., Pāramitā-naya and Mantra-naya. The principles of Mantra-naya are said to be very deep and subtle and inaccessible to ordinary men; and though the ultimate purpose of the Mantra-śāstra is the same as that of others, it is distinctly superior to the other Śāstras, which prescribe many easier methods; the reason is that it (i.e., Mantra-śāstra) is free from delusions and it is accessible only to people of higher intellectual calibre. This Mantra-naya or Mantra-yāna school of Mahāyāna seems to be the introductory stage of Tāntric Buddhism from which all

² ekā-rthatve' py asammohāt bahūpāyād aduşkarāt | tīkṣṇendriyā-dhikārāc ca mantra-śāstram viśiṣyate |

Tattva-ratnāvali in Advaya-vajra-samgraha, p. 21.

the other offshoots of Vajra-yāna, Kālacakra-yāna, Sahaja-yāna, etc., arose in later times. In the Laghu-kāla-cakra-tantrarāja-ṭīkā, entitled Vimala-prabhā, we find that the doctrines of the Pāramitā-naya are written wholly in Sanskrit, while those of the Mantra-naya are explained in Sanskrit, Prakrit, Apabhramśa and even in the non-Sanskritic languages like those of the Savaras and others.

Early Buddhism was a religion of rigorous moral discipline, practices and contemplation. But such a religion of purely ethical codes and deep meditation could not appeal to the masses and the systems of moral discipline and the methods of the jhanas were not acceptable to them. To the ordinary mind religion is something full of rites and ceremonies or other paraphernalia of esoteric practices. It is for this reason that for the sake of the common run of people the Mantras, the Mudras and the Mandalas (mystic circles) were introduced in Buddhism in course of time. These Mantra, Mudrā and Mandala, etc., introduced for the realisation of the ultimate truth, gradually brought with them various other practices and thus Buddhism began to put on a different air, which is generally known as Tantricism. We may recall in this connection the later Mahāyānic idea of Trailokya-vijaya or the religious conquest of the three worlds. The idea behind the whole drive was the idea of bringing people of all calibre within the Buddhistic faith by making Buddhism acceptable to all classes of people. With this end in view the Mahāyānic apostles had to incorporate all sorts of popular ceremonies and practices in their

samskṛta-bhāṣayā pāramitānayam | mantranayam tantra-tanfrāntaram samskṛta-bhāṣayā prākṛtabhāṣayā apabhramśa-bhāṣayā asamskṛta-śavarādi-mleccha-bhāṣayā |

Laghu-kālacakra-tantra-rāja-tīkā (MS. R.A.S.B. 4727), p. 30(A).

religion, and as a result the ethico-religious nature of Buddhism began to change rapidly.

Tradition holds Asanga, the great exponent of the Yogācāra school, to be responsible for the introduction of Tāntrism in Buddhism; he again, in his turn, is believed to have been initiated into this mystic cult by Maitreya in the Tuṣita-heaven. Others on the other hand hold that Nāgārjuna, the renowned exponent of the Mādhyamika school, was the real founder of the esoteric school, and he received the doctrines from the Celestial Buddha Vairocana through the divine Bodhisattva Vajrasattva at 'the iron tower' in South India.

But apart from these traditions, some scholars are disposed to think that in the Mahāyāna-sūtrālankāra of Asanga there are clear references to the sexo-yogic practice of the Tantric Buddhists. As the point has been discussed by the present writer elsewhere, he need not repeat it here. 2 Dr. Benayatosh Bhattacarya is of the opinion that the esoteric elements were introduced into Buddhism by Lord Buddha himself as a provision for the lay people whose intellectual calibre would not allow them to follow the path chalked out by him. We on the whole are rather loath to believe that Buddha whose life and teachings were a direct revolution against the prevalent religious system of ceremonies and rituals should have himself made any provision for Tantric practices of any kind in his religion only to popularise his religion among the uncultured and uneducated mass. 4

Vide Aśoka and His Inscriptions by Dr. B. M. Barua, Part I, pp. 283, 312; also a lecture by Dr. Barua, named, Role of Buddhism in Indian Life and Thought, delivered at a symposium of the Indian Philosophical Congress, 21st Session, Delhi.

² Vide Obscure Religious Cults As Background of Bengali Literature (C.U., 1946) by the present writer.

³ An Introduction to Buddhist Esoterism, p. 48. See also The Introduction to the Sădhana-mālā, Vol. II, pp. xvi-xvii.

⁴ Vide Obscure Religious Cults, etc., pp. 18-20.

When and by whom the Mantra element was introduced in Buddhism we do not know exactly; but it seems that with the rise of Mahāyāna with its pledge for delivering all the beings higher or lower, meritorious or vicious, the Mantra, Mudra, Mandala and such other popular religious practices began to make their way into Buddhism. The Mahāyānist preachers, with their pledge of universal redemption, could not do without these ordinary masses and for them they had to condescend from the prescription of strict ethicoreligious practices to the sanction of the Mantra, Mudrā, etc. The innumerable Dhāranīs seem to be the original form in which the Mantra element first found its way in Mahāyāna. The word Dhāraṇī literally means that by which something is sustained or kept up (dhāryate anayā iti), i.e., the mystic syllables that have got the capacity of keeping up the religious life of a man. In the evolution of some of the Mantras in the Dhāraṇīs there seems to be some sort of a history. It seems that the ordinary followers of Buddhism could not follow the original aphorism of Buddhism; for them it was necessary to shorten the sūtras into the Dhāranīs and the ordinary followers were enjoined to commit to memory and regularly recite these Dhāranīs with implicit faith, and it was assured by the Bodhisattvas that the recital of these Dhāranīs was capable of producing infinite merit in the reciters and of conferring immense benefit on them. Dr. B. Bhattacharya has traced some sort of a history of the bija-mantra pram which symbolises Prajñā-pāramitā. The Aştasāhasrikā-prajñā-pāramitā, a Mahāyāna work of stupendous volume, could hardly be expected to be read and mastered by any ordinary follower: it was therefore absolutely necessary to abridge these 8,000 stanzas into a few stanzas, which became known as the Prajñā-pāramitā-hrdaya-sūtra, which again was further reduced to the Prajñā-pāramitā-dhāranī. From this Prajñā-pāramitā-dhāranī again evolved the Prajñāpāramitā-mantra, from which again evolved the bīja-mantra in one syllable as pram, and it was believed that in response to the muttering of this bīja-mantra pram śūnyatā would transform herself into the goddess Prajñā-pāramitā, who is a 'veritable metamorphosis of the Prajñā-pāramitā literature.' These bīja-mantras are mono-syllablic Mantras symbolising some particular god or goddess. Thus 'a' represents Vairocana, 'ya' Aksobhya, 'ra' Ratnasambhava, 'ba' Amitābha and 'la' Amoghasiddhi, 'Hum' is the bīja of Vajra-sattva. The vowel 'a' being the first and the most independent sound, has been taken to represent Sūnyatā or Prajñā.

This system of bija-mantra is very common in the Hindu Tantras also, and they are even now prevalent in all the Hindu systems including Śāktaism, Śaivism, Vaiṣṇavism, etc. It has often been assured in the Buddhist Tantras that in response to the muttering of these bija-mantras the ultimate void (śūnyatā) will transform herself into the particular form of god or goddess and confer infinite benefit on the reciter. The same belief is found in the Hindu Tantras. In the Mahāsukha-prakāśa of the Advaya-vajra-samgraha it has been said that the bija proceeds from the śūnyatā-knowledge, and from the bija proceeds the reflection or the form (of particular gods and goddesses). This

¹ Vide An Introduction to Esoteric Buddhism, by B. Bhatta-charya, p. 56.

² About the allotment of the bijas to the different gods and goddesses there is no strict agreement among the Tantras. Thus in the Pañca-krama we find that 'om' is the bija of Vairocana, 'āh' of Amitābha, 'hum' of Aksobhya, 'svā' of Rantranātha and 'hā' of Karmanātha. [MS. B.N. Sans. Nos. 65, 66, p. 4(B)].

In the Mantra-putala of the Hevajra-tantra we find that the bija-mantra of the Tathagata is om āh hum phat svāhā; that of the goddesses krum am jim kham hum,—and that of Heruka is tam mam pam tam bam om deva picuvajre hum hum hum phat svāhā. MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 11317) p. 5(A).

Vide Tantrā-loka, also Vijnāna-bhairava (Kashmir Series of Texts and Studies).

⁵ śūnyatā-bodhito bījam bījād bimbam prajāyate | Advaya-vajra-samgraha, p. 50 (G.O.S.).

kind of belief in a syllable representing a god or goddess is a very old belief current from the time of the Āraṇyakas and the Upaniṣads. In the Upaniṣads we often find that Brahman is to be meditated in the form of the syllable 'om'; this 'om' is taken to be the representative of the Brahman. Even Patañjali in his Yoga philosophy accepts the praṇava (i.e., 'om') to be the representative of Iśvara.

It must, however, be admitted that of these Mantras (which are many in kinds, such as Bija, Hrdaya, Upahrdaya, Raksā, etc.) only very few can be historically traced back to some significant origin like the bija-mantra pram. A noticeable thing in this · Mantra element is the infusion of some particular significance into some sound or syllable, which now seems to us to be purely arbitrary; and often purely Sanskritic words have also been explained in that technical way. Thus, in the Manual of a Mystic we find, -"In the word Arahan the first letter 'A' means the Treasure of the Law (Dharma); the second 'Ra' the Treasure who is the Buddha and the third 'Han' the Treasure of the brotherhood (Sangha)". In the Hevajra-tantra Śrī-Heruka has been explained in the following manner,- 'Sri' means the non-dual knowledge, 'he' means the non-causality, 'ru' means the nature as uncompounded and 'ka' means 'not abiding anywhere'.' In the Śri-cakra-sambhāra-tantra we find,-" Let him imagine in the centre of his own heart the letter 'A' evolved from the experience which knows that forms are unreal. Or let him think of the clear lunar disc which symbolises world experience, and upon that Mantra 'Hum' which symbolises mind devoid of objective content. Of this 'Hum' the

¹ Manual of a Mystic (being the Translation from the Pali and Sinhalese work entitled the Yogavachara's Manual) by F. L. Woodward, M.A. (Cantab), p. 2.

śri-kāram advayam jūānam he-kāram hetuśūnyatā | ru-kārā-pagatam byūham kakāre na kvacit sthitam | Hevajra-tantra. MS. (RASB. No. 11817) p. 19(A).

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letter 'u' stands for the knowledge which accomplishes all works; the body of the letter 'H' for that knowledge which distinguishes, the top of the letter 'H' for the equalising knowledge, the crescent (candra) for the mirror-like knowledge; and the 'Bindu' above that for the changeless knowledge." This kind of interpretation of the Mantras is frequently met with in the Tantra literature in general.

On the whole it seems that most of the Mantras and Dhāraṇīs are composed of a string of syllables which have lost their etymological meaning or which had never an etymological meaning. Vasubandhu says in his Bodhisattva-bhūmi that this absolute meaninglessness is the real significance of the Mantras. A Sādhaka is to meditate on these Mantras as something absolutely meaningless and this constant meditation on the meaninglessness of the Mantras will gradually lead to a state of mind where it will be very easy for him to meditate on the ultimate nature of the dharmas as absolutely meaningless; this meaninglessness is the void nature of the dharmas and thus the meditation on the Mantras will gradually lead a Sādhaka to the realisation of the void nature of the dharmas.

¹ Śri-cakra-sambhāra-tantra, translated from Tibetan by Kazi Dawasamdup, pp. 5-6.

² akāras tala-cakrastho vārāhī sā vidhīyate |
rephas tatah samudbhūto yā rekhā bahni-rūpinī ||
akāro vāvadhūtīti sarva-dharma-sukham hi sā |
rekhā bahnimayī rekhā tadvartamāno carita (satī) (?) ||
atrāpyakāro draṣtavyah prabhāsvara-sukhākṛti |
dvayoh samyogato ceti madhya-varno yato bhavet ||
hakārah sukha-cakrastho lekhayalingitam (?) tayā|
tatah samplāvayan devīm ikāro vindurucyate ||
tasmāt tu lokottarā kvacit lokottara-sukha-pradā |
lakṣya-lakṣaṇa-vibhavā seyam ikāra-rūpinī ||
etām saptākṣarīm devīs trailokya-jñāna-suddhataḥ | etc.
Marmakalikā-tantra. MS. (B.N. Sans. No. 83) pp. 2(B)—
3(A).

⁵ Vide Bodhisattva-bhūmi—Ed. by Unari Wogihara (Tokyo), pp. 272-74.

See also Obscure Religious Cults, etc. by the present author, pp. 21-22.

Thus according to Vasubandhu in this absolute unmeaningness of the Mantra lies its real power which helps the Sādhaka in realising the nature of the universe as absolute void. The Mantras are thus taken only as a help for the realisation of the absolute voidnature of the universe. So in the hands of Vasubandhu the Mantras obtain a deeper significance than the mere invokation of any particular god or goddess who might confer mundane benefit on us or fulfil some of our selfish desires.

Besides these unmeaning mystic syllables we find in later Buddhist Tantras that the letters (including all the vowels and the consonants) were transformed into Mantras. In this matter the Buddhist Tantras agree fully with the Hindu Tantras. It is a general custom with the Tantras to place these Mantras in the form of the letters in different parts of the body for the purification of the body, and there are often elaborate systems of the arrangement of the letters on the different plexus (cakras) situated within the body along the spinal chord. The two sets of letters, viz., āli (the vowels beginning with the vowel 'a') and kālī (the consonants beginning with the letter 'ka') are often spoken of variously in both the Hindu and Buddhist Tantric practices. It is therefore necessary here to say a few explanatory words about these Mantras as letters (varna).

In this transformation of the letters into the Mantras, as Prof. S. N. Dasgupta explains in an article, the Tantras seem to have adopted the Mīmāmsā theory of śabda or sound. The Mīmāmsakas hold that sound is eternal and is always in the form

¹ Vide Vajra-jāpa-krama of the Pañca-krama. MS. (B.N. Sans. No. 65) pp. 4(B)—5(A). Also, Heruka-tantra, Bodhicitta-saṅkramaṇa-paṭala, MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 11279) pp. 74(A)—75(B).

² General Introduction to Tantra Philosophy, by Prof. S. N. Dasgupta, collected in his Philosophical Essays.

of the letters of the alphabet, and a word is also nothing more than the letters that compose it. The meaning of a word is absolutely independent of any human agency and belongs to the word by virtue of its very nature and some peculiar power is required for the realisation of this inherent meaning. The words themselves are also eternal, but they require the auxiliary agency of pronunciation to be cognisable to our consciousness. The Tantras accept this view of the eternal nature of the sabdas and further hold that "the movement that produced the world shows itself, or. is represented in us in miniature, in the production of the sound. The process of the production of the sound is the epitome of the notion as it were, of the cosmic . process of creation." This creative power, which is viewed as the mother of the universe in its aspect as identified with the varnas is called the matrka. Now śabda being of the nature of varna, the fifty varnas from 'a' to 'h' are taken to be the totality of the presiding force over the śabda. The different varnas therefore represent the different functions of the mātrkās and these mātrkās being parts of the creative forces are associated with particular conative, cognitive and emotional tendencies and are also naturally connected with corresponding physiological centres, which form the physiological data of these psychological functions. This seems to be the metaphysical ground on which this Mantra theory as the varnas is based. In the Śrīsampuţikā we find that whatever word proceeds from the mouth of man should be regarded as a Mantra, the sound (nada) is the Mantra. In the Vyakta-bhāvānugata-tattva-siddhi it has been said that whatever pure movements of the limbs, proceed forth from the Bodhicitta, which is Sahaja, should

¹ yaḥ kaścit prasaro vācām janānām pratipadyate |
sa sarvo mantra-rūpo hi tasmād eva prajāyate |
nādo hi mantra ity uktam sarveṣām tu śarīriṇām | etc.
Śrī-sampuṭikā. MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 4854) p. 9(B).

all be conceived of as the Mudrās, and whatever words proceed from it are all Mantras.

Closely associated with this Mantra element of esoteric Buddhism is the Mudrā element which is generally taken to be signs made by the particular position of the hands and the fingers. 2 This Mudra element, however, with the Mantra and some other esoteric practices has a deeper significance in the vogic Sādhanā of the Tāntrikas, and as the Mantra element contains all the secrecy of the potency of sound, the Mudrā element contains the secrecy of touch as associated with the potency of the physiological system. With Mantra and Mudra the element of Mandala or describing the mystic circles was also introduced. Though this Mudrā element with the Mantra element and some other esoteric practices may be traced back to the later vedic practices, we have reason to think that in the evolution of Mudra in esoteric Buddhism the different postures of the hands and fingers of Śākvamuni have something to do, and some of these postures do allude to some of the incidents of his life. In the University library of Cambridge there is a manuscript with the colophon śrimac-chākyarāja-sarva-durgatiparisodhana-mukhākhyāna-prathama-ādiyoga- n ā m asamādhih with as many as hundred and fifty-eight coloured illustrations of the different kinds of Mudras. Of these some seem to be purely the posture of the

¹ svabhāva-śuddha-bodhicittāt ye khalu sahaja-vinirmitā-ngavikṣepās te sarve eva mudrā-kārāḥ/ye²pi vāg-vikṣepās te²pi mantraprakārāḥ|

Vyakta-bhāvānugata-tattva-siddhi. MS. (C.L.B. No. 13124) p. 90(A).

Cf. also the Bengali song of Sādhaka Rāmprasād, yata suna karna-pute, sakali mār mantra bate, kāli pañcāsat-varnamayī varne varne nāma dhare

[&]quot;Whatever you hear with your ears are but the Mantras of the Mother; Mother Kālī is of the nature of these fifty letters, and she has her name in every letter."

² This Mudrā should be carefully distinguished from the Mudrā or the Mahāmudrā who is the Prajhā or the great woman to be adopted in the Yogic practice.

hands and fiingers; some on the other hand illustrate the different manners of holding the thunderbolt (vajra), the lotus (padma), the bell (ghaṇṭā), the sword, the conch-shell (śaṅkha), bunch of flowers, garlands, etc. Others again illustrate the manner of offering flowers, water, incense, lamp and other materials of worship. Some again illustrate the different manners of playing on the different musical instruments. All these are done with the aim of obtaining final purification and final deliverance from the miseries of life.

Once the portals of Buddhism were flung open to let in some elements of Tāntricism in the form of the Dhāraṇī, Mantra, Mudrā, etc., all the traditional beliefs in Magic and charms and sorceries with all their details rushed in and quickly changed the whole ethicoreligious outlook of Buddhism; and with the forms and traditions of Buddhism and the materials of Tāntricism grew up the elaborate Tāntric Buddhist systems.

(ii) Vajra-yāna-The Most Common Name

Once this esoterism could find admission into the Buddhist fold all sorts of popular beliefs and practices began vigorously to be incorporated in it. The six kinds of Tāntric rituals intended for the good or evil of anybody (generally known as abhicāra) gradually made their way in it, and the five accessories of Tāntric practices, generally known as the five 'M's (paācamakāras) also found place in Buddhist esoterism. But the aim of these practices is not always the fulfilment of some or other mundane desire (though instances of them are not altogether wanting), but these practices with their minutest details are said to be undertaken only for the attainment of the Bodhicitta, i.e., for the

We do not find any direct mention of these pañca-makāras in the Buddhist Tantras; but we find sporadic mention of wine, fish and meat, etc., but more often we find mention of the pañca-kāma-guṇas, and it is often said that a Sādhaka placed in the Prajño-pāya can, without hesitation, enjoy the five objects of enjoyment for the attainment of perfection.

realisation of perfect knowledge and for the uplift of all beings.

This composite system of Tantricism came to be known by the general name of Vajra-yāna and from Vajra-yāna developed the Sahaja-yāna at a still later time. 2

¹ The original name Mantra-yāna is also sometimes used in a general sense for the later Buddhist Tāntric Schools.

E.G., mantra-mahāyāne tv anuvaksyate, etc. Hevajra-pañjikā, MS.

p. 45(B).

Also,—mantra-yānā-nusārena tad idam vaksyate'dhunā |

—Advaya-vajra-samgraha, p. 54.

Also, --Comm. on the Dohākosa of Kānhapāda, Verse No. 12.
--Dr. P. C. Bagchi's edition.

² Kazi Dawasamdup in his introduction to the Śrī-cakra-sambhāra-tantra divides this Vajra-yāna into six sects. He says,-"The development or 'fruit' of the first three (i.e., Śrāvaka-yāna, Pratycka-buddha-yana and Bodhisattva-yana) is the Vajra-yana and Mantra-yāna which is divided into six parts or states; (4) Kriyā-tantra-yāna (Byavhi-rGyud-kyi-thegpa); (5) Caryā or Upāya-tantra-yāna (Spyod-pahi-rGyud-kyi-thegpa); (6) Yoga-tantra-yāna (rNalhbyor-rg). The latter is again subdivided into three; (7) Mahāyogatantra-yana (Maha-yoga or Ma-rGyud-kyi-thegpa); (8) Anuttarayoga-tantra-yana (Anuyoga or (?) Blamed-rGyud-kyi-thegpa); and (9) Ati-yoga-tantra-yana (Ati-yoga hi-theg-pa)." From what source Kazi Dawasamdup described these subdivisions we do not know; the general practice, however, is to divide Vajra-yana into four classes,-viz., Kriya-tantra, Carya-tantra, Yoga-tantra and Anuttara-tantra. Mr. Waddell describes the first two divisions as the "Lower Tantra" and the last two as the "Upper Tantra". (Lamaism -p. 152). The Kriyā-tantras and Caryā-tantras are concerned with the rituals, ceremonies, worship of gods and goddesses and other practices; but the Yoga-tantra and the Anuttara-tantra are much higher types of Tantras containing the Yogic processes for the realisation of the ultimate truth and a discussion on the nature of the ultimate truth. As a matter of fact if we go through the Buddhist Tantric texts, we shall find that some of the texts contain nothing but the detailed description of the gods and goddesses and elaborate systems of worship and chantings-without having any element of yoga or philosophy in them. It is for this reason that to study the essentials of the Buddhist Tantras we should concentrate our attention more on the Yoga-tantras and the Anuttara-tantras and our study is generally based on them. But the fact is that it is often very difficult to arrange the Buddhist Tantras under the heading of these four classes,-for many of the Tantras contain a mixture of the different elements.

The doctrines of the Kriyā-tantras and the Caryā-tantras were meant for the beginners for whom mere rituals and practices were prescribed; but the Yoga-tantra and the Anuttara-yoga-tantra are

(A) Kālacakra-yāna, nāthism, etc.

The Buddhist Tantras are generally divided into three schools, viz., Vajra-yāna, Kāla-cakra-yāna and Sahaja-yana. We do not know on the authority of what texts this division of schools have been made. Of course, these names are often met with in the Tantric texts, but the characteristics of the schools have never sufficiently explained, Mahāmahopādhyāya Haraprasāda Śāstrī in his introduction to Modern Buddhism and its Followers in Orissa of N. N. Basu, speaks of Nāthism as another school of Tantric Buddhism in addition to the three already mentioned above. This view of MM. Śāstrī seems to be based on a popular misconception. The name of Kāla-cakra-yāna also appears to be perplexing. About it Waddell says in his Lamaism,-" In the tenth century A.D., the Tantrik phase developed in Northern India, Kashmir, and Nepal, into the monstrous and poly-demonist doctrine. the Kāla-cakra, with its demoniacal Buddhas, which incorporated the Mantra-yana practices, and called itself the Vajra-yana or the 'Thunderbolt-Vehicle', and its followers were named Vajrā-cārya or 'followers of the Thunderbolt." In another place he says,-" The extreme development of the Tantrika phase was reached with the Kāla-cakra, which, although unworthy of being considered as a philosophy, must be referred to here as a doctrinal basis. It is merely a coarse Tantrik development of the Adi-Buddha theory combined with the puerile mysticism of the Mantra-yana, and it attempts to explain creation and the secret powers of

meant for the advanced Sādhakas who would attain perfection (siddhi) through processes of Yoga. Prof. La Vallée Poussin has compared these divisions of the Buddhist Tantras with the arrangement of the Vaiṣṇava-tantras (found in the Padma-tantra) as the (1) Jñāna-pāda, (2) Yoga-pāda, (3) Kriyā-pāda and (4) Caryā-pāda. (J.R.A.S., 1901, p. 900).

¹ See Obscure Religious Cults As Background of Bengali Literature by the present writer.

² Lamaism by Waddell, p. 15.

nature, by the union of the terrible Kālī, not only with the Dhyani Buddhas, but even with Adi-Buddha himself. In this way Adi-Buddha, by meditation evolves a procreative energy by which the awful Sambharā and other dreadful Dākinī fiendesses, all of the Kālī-type, obtain spouses as fearful as themselves, yet spouses who are regarded as reflexes of Adi-Buddha and the Dhyani Buddhas. And these demoniacal 'Buddhas', under the name of Kāla-cakra, Heruka, Achala, Vajrabhairava, etc., are credited with powers not inferior to those of the celestial Buddhas themselves, and withal ferocious and blood thirsty; and only to be conciliated by constant worship of themselves and their female energies, with offerings and sacrifices, magic circles, special mantra-charms, etc."1

From what is said here about the Kāla-cakra-yāna it seems that it is also a phase of Vajra-vāna with a predominance of the terrible gods and goddesses whom Waddell has styled as the 'demoniacal Buddhas'. But we do not understand the relation of this terrible aspect of Tantric Buddhism with the name Kala-cakra given to it. The word Kala-cakra means the wheel of time. Its Tibetan synonym "'Dus-Kyi-' K'or-lo" also means the circle of time. MM. H. P. Sastri explains the word in the following way: - "What is Kāla-cakra-yāna? The word Kāla means time, death and destruction. Kāla-cakra is the wheel of destruction, and Kāla-cakra-yāna means the vehicle for protection against the wheel of destruction."

We have at our disposal a text of the title of Srikāla-cakra-tantra.3 As far as our knowledge of the Buddhist Tantric texts goes, we have not found any other text belonging to this Kāla-cakra class. A study of the text does not confirm the statement that Kālacakra-yāna is that school of Tantric Buddhism which

¹ Ibid., p. 131.

² Modern Buddhism, etc. Intro., p. 8. ³ Preserved in the Cambridge University Library (Cambridge MS. Add. No. 1864).

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introduced the demoniacal Buddhas in its fold,-at least it is not the main characteristic through which the school should be recognised. In the beginning of the text we find that King Sucandra approached the Omniscient Lord Buddha with salutation and asked of him the voga of the Śri-kāla-cakra which is the way to salvation of all people of the Kali age. 1 Then the Lord replied that this secret of voga is unknown to all, it is a system of Yoga which, with all its accessories of Mandala (magic circle) and consecration (abhiseka), is explained within this very body, and the Lord then explained how all the universe with all its objects and localities are situated in the body and how time with all its varieties (viz., day, night, fortnight, month, year, etc.) . are all within the body in its processes of the vital wind (prāna-vāyu). In the body of the text Sahaja has been fully explained and the details of the sexovogic practices for the attainment of the Sahaja have also been described. The only thing that strikes the reader is the stress given to the control of the vital winds (prāna and apāna) and to the results attained therefrom; we find detailed discussions of how even the different diseases are to be cured by the control of this Prana and Apana. This theory of Kala-cakra has very soundly been discussed in the sixth chapter of the Tantrā-loka of Abhinava-gupta and a perusal of the text will convince the reader that the explanation of Kāla-cakra as given in the Śrī-kāla-cakra-tantra is just the same as described in the Tantrā-loka. The whole chapter of the Tantra-loka is devoted to the exposition of the doctrine of Kala (time) and the process of keeping oneself above the influence of the whirl of time. Here also time (kāla) in all its phases (day, night, fortnight, month, year, etc.) has been explained with reference to the functions of the vital wind (prana and

MS. (Cambridge Add. No. 1864) p. 1(B).
 dehamadhyc samastam yogam vyakhyayamanam śrnusva narapate mandalam ca'bhisekam | Ibid., p. 1(B).

apāna) spread through the whole nervous system, and the process of controlling time is to control the vital wind in the nerves through yogic practices.

The nature of Lord Śri-kāla-cakra becomes clear from the Laghu-kāla-cakra-tantra-rāja-tīkā, entitled the Vimala-prabhā. Here he is saluted as of the nature of Śūnyatā and Karunā; in him there is the absence of the origination and destruction of the three worlds, he is an unification of the knowledge and the knowable; goddess Praiñā, who is both with form and without form, is embraced by him; he is bereft of origination and change,-he is immutable bliss bereft of all lower pleasure; he is the father of the Buddhas, possessing the three Kayas, the knower of the three times (i.e., the past, present and future), the Omniscient,-the ultimate and original Buddha-the nondual Lord. By an examination of these descriptions of the Śrī-kāla-cakra it will be found that there is no difference between the conception of this Lord Śrī-kālacakra and the Lord Vajra-sattva described hereafter. Again the aim of the Kāla-cakra-tantra as professed here is no mundane benefit; on the other hand, like all other Buddhist Tantras it also professes the attainment of perfect enlightenment, not only for the self but for all the beings, to be the final aim.

That the conception of Kāla-cakra is substantially the same as the conception of Vajra-sattva and that Kāla-cakra-yāna is not a distinct school of Tāntric Buddhism, but a particular name for the Vajra-yāna school, will be clear also from the text Sekoddeśa-ṭīkā, which is a commentary on the Sekoddeśa section of the Kāla-cakra-tantra. There it is said that the ultimate immutable and unchangeable one, remaining in the skylike dharma-dhātu (the element underlying all the dharmas) is called Kāla; it itself is the immutable know-

G.O.S .- Ed. by Mario E. Carelli, Dr. Litt.

ledge. Cakra implies the unity of the three kinds of existence—the manifestation of Kāla. It (the Cakra) is the body of the Lord—point-like, containing the potency of the existence of the universe. Kāla-cakra, therefore, implies exactly the same as the unity of Prajñā and Upāya.

Every syllable of the word Kāla-cakra is said to be pregnant with a meaning. Thus, the syllable 'kā' means causality (kāraņa), 'la' means 'cosmic reabsorption' (laya), 'ca' means the unsteady mind, and 'kra' means the series of event or the process. " Kāla, therefore, means the state of absorption in the original cause-potency, this is the state of Sunyata; it is the pure consciousness or the principle of subjectivity. Cakra on the other hand means the principle of knowability, or the cycle of the world-process (ineya-karam jagac-cakram jneyam traidhatukam ananta-bhavalaksanam cakram), which is also the principle of Upāya, Kāla-cakra, therefore, means the absolutely unified principle of Prajñā and Upāya.3 We shall presently see that the conception of the Lord Vairasattva, the Godhead of Tantric Buddhism, is also exactly the same. Sometimes we find in the Kālacakra-tantra salutation to Lord Śrī-kāla-cakra in the very manner in which Lord Vajra-sattva, the Lord Supreme, is saluted in most of the Buddhist Tantras. 4 This Kāla-cakra is the Bodhicitta; he is the ultimate

¹ Sekoddeśa-ţikā, p. 8. C/. also, karuṇā-śūnyatā-mūrtiḥ kālaḥ samvṛti-rūpiṇī| śūnyatā-cakram ity uktam kāla-cakro'dvayo'kṣaraḥ || Ibid., p. 8.

kākārāt kāraņe šānte lakārāl layo'tra vai | cakārāc cala-cittasya krakārāt krama-bandhanaih || Ibid., p. 8.

³ As for the unification of Prajñā and Upāya see injra.

^{*} namas te kāla-cakrāya sarvā-varaņa- hānaye | paramā-kṣara-sukhā-pūrṇa jñāna-kāya namo'(a sic.) stu te | śūnyatā-karuṇā-bhinnam bodhi-cittam yad akṣaram | tena sekena me nātha prasādam kuru sāmpratam | etc.

Sekoddeśa-tīkā, p. 24.

immutable substance in the form of motionless great bliss (acintya-mahāsukha). 1

The Sahajiyā school is an-offshoot of Vajra-yāna. There is no exclusive literature belonging to Sahajayāna,-on the other hand, the Sahajiyā poets of the Dohās and songs recognise the well-known texts of Vajra-yana as their authority. The exponents of the Sahajiyā school put the whole emphasis on their protest against the formalities of life and religion. Truth is something which can never be found through mere austere practices of discipline, neither can it be realised through much reading and philosophising, or through fasting, bathing, constructing images and worshipping gods and goddesses and the innumerable other paraphernalia of rites and rituals prescribed in Vajra-vana; it is to be intuited within in the most unconventional way through the initiation in the Tattva and the practice of yoga. This makes the position of the Sahajivās distinct from that of the Vajra-yanists in general.

The name Sahaja-vāna seems to be doubly significant ; it is Sahaja-vāna because, its aim is to realise the ultimate innate nature (sahaja) of the self as well as of the dharmas, and it is Sahaja-vana also because of the fact that instead of suppressing and thereby inflicting undue strain on the human nature it makes man realise the truth in the most natural way,-i.e., by adopting the path through which the human nature itself leads him. What is natural is the easiest; and thus Sahaja, from its primary meaning of being natural acquires the secondary meaning of being easy, straight or plain. As

1 Sekoddeśa-tika, p. 8, also, p. 8.

namah śri-kāla-cakrāya śūnyatā-karuņā-tmane tri-bhavo-tpatti-kṣaya-bhāvo jñāna-jñeyaika-mūrtaye || sākārā ca nirākrtir bhagavatī prajāā tajā'lingitah [utpāda-vyaya-varjito' kṣara-sukho hāsyà-di-saukhyo-jjhitah || buddhanam janakas tri-kaya-sahitah traikalya-samvedakah | sarvaiñah paramā-dibuddho bhagavān vande tam evā'dvayam Beginning of the Laghu-kāla-cakra-tantra-rāja-tīkā (entitled Vimala-prabhā, MS. R.A.S.B. No. 4727).

As for the salutations to Lord Vajra-sattva see infra, Ch. IV.

the Sahajiyā school has been studied by the present writer in a comprehensive way in another work, entitled Obscure Religious Cults As Background Of Bengali Literature, he does not propose to deal with it into further detail here.

(B) GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF VAJRA-YANA

Vajra-yana or the 'Adamantine way' is really the way or means for the realisation of the Vajra-nature or the immutable and impenetrable void-nature of the self as well as of the dharmas. But the scope and characteristics of Vajra-vāna have not been satisfactorily explained in any of the Tantric texts. The Śrisamāja, which is credited by some to be the earliest authoritative text on Vajra-yāna, explains Vajra-yāna as the means which has recourse to the five families (kulas) of the Bodhisattvas, viz., Moha (presided over by Vairocana with his Sakti Vajradhātvīśvarī), Dvesa (presided over by Aksobhya with his Sakti Locana), Rāga (presided over by Amitābha with his Sakti Pāndarā), etc.; but these kulas have always their foundation on the Vajra or the śūnyatā. Thus, according to the Sri-samāja, the school that grew with the system of the five families, the Kulas, of the Bodhisattvas is the Vajra-yana school. In the Sadhanamālā we find some characteristics of Vajra-yāna explained in connection with the Sadhana of Vairatārā. Here the Sādhaka takes the resolution before the Cakra of the goddess that he will remove all the evils (pāpa) in him-will hold in high regard all the merits (kuśala) of all the Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, Aryas (the reverend) and of all the Prthag-janas (ordinary men)will develop all his merits which will lead him to transcendental (anuttara) perfect enlightenment (sam-

Vide infra, Ch. IV.

^{*} moho dveşas tathā rāgaḥ sadā vajre ratiḥ sthitā | upāyas tena buddhānāmvajra-yēnam iti smrtam || Srī-guhyasamāja-tantra, p. 154.

bodhi); he will take refuge in Buddha, the supreme one of all men,-to Dharma including the whole Mahāyāna, to the Sangha,-the assembly of the immutable Bodhisattvas; he will attain transcendental perfect enlightenment for all the beings-for their good,for their happiness,- for establishing them in the element of nirvana and in the wisdom of the Buddhas,and for all these he is going to adopt the path of transcendental perfect enlightenment,-and that path is the Vajra-yana. 1 In another place also, the attainment of Bodhi through all the seemingly unmeaning practices, rites, ceremonies, mantras and meditation is professed to be the aim of Vajra-vana. In the Jnana-siddhi of Indrabhūti it has been said that the Vajra-yāna has been explained in innumerable yoga-tantras, those fools who do not know of it whirl in the sea of existence. Vajra-vana is compared to the raft by which one is to cross the ocean of existence, which is full of the snares of false subjectivity. In the Guhyasiddhi of Padmavajra Vajra-vāna is characterised as the transcendental path which is the unity of all the religions, the doctrines of Vajra-yana are the most secret :- it is a religion of non-substantiality and purity,-it has got no parallel. '

But all these are mere cursory descriptions none of which suggests any correct definition of Vajra-yāna. In fact, Vajra-yāna cannot be defined; for it incorporated within it so many heterogeneous elements and

¹ eşo'ham anuttara-samyak-sambodhi-mārgam āśrayāmi yad uta vajra-yānam |

Sādhana-mālā, Vol. I, p. 225. ² Sādhana-mālā, Vol. II, p. 421.

³ Two Vajra-yāna Works, p. 31 (G.O.S.).

^{*} kalpanā-jāla-pūrņasya samsārasya maho-dadheh | vajra-yānam samāruhya ko vā pāram gamisyati || Ibid., p. 68.

sarva-dharma-samekatvam yat tvayā bhāṣitam prabhu ||
aho guhyā-tiguhyasya vajra-yānasya deśanā |
niḥsvabhāvasya śuddhasya vidyate yasya no'pamā ||
Guhyā-siddhi, MS. p. 6(A).

practices that any attempt at strict definition must be futile. We occasionally find in it all the six Tantric practices technically known as abhicara, viz., māraņa (i.e., killing), mohana (enchanting), stambhana (paralysing), vidvesana (rendering harm through animosity), uccātana (removing or driving away) and vaśi-karana (subduing), carried on with the purpose of fulfilling the selfish desires. Again, there are the elaborate methods of worshipping the gods and goddesses, making their images or paintings, chanting of the gathas (verses) and the Mantras, the culture of the pāramitās, the application of the Mudras, and drawing the mystic circles, the practices of Hatha-yoga as well as of the contemplative yoga-system found in the canonical texts like the Visuddhi-magga, etc., and last but not the least, the sexo-yogic Tantric practices. 1 We need not here enter into the detail of these heterogeneous practices, the mere enumeration and illustration of which are not likely to throw any light of any kind. Let us only notice here how these innumerable practices have been given a Buddhistic colouring.

In spite of this heterogeneity of elements the most striking feature of Vajra-yāna, which justifies the general name given to it, is the use and function of the idea of Vajra. Vajra, as we shall presently see, is the

¹ Often we find mention of the rules of strict discipline, the development of the pāramitās, but often the Vajra-yānists declare that there cannot be anything evil for the Vajra-yānist,—no work not to be done,—no food not to be taken, no woman not to be enjoyed. Often it is rather commended that a Vajra-yānist should steal the properties of others, always tell the lie, kill all the beings, eat everything, should enjoy all women, whatever relation she may be.

para-sva-haranam kuryāt para-dāra-nisevaņam | vaktavyam ca mrṣā-vākyam sarva-buddhān ca ghātayet ||

gamyā-gamya-vikalpan tu bhaksyā-bhaksyan tathaiva ca | peyā-peyam tathā mantrī kuryān naiva samāhitah || Advaya-siddhi, MS. (C.L.B. No. 13124) p. 36(A).
Cj. also Šrīguhya-samāja-tantra, p. 125, p. 98, p. 20 etc.

Kṛṣṇa-yamāri-tantra. MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 9964) p. 20(B), quoted in the Catalogue of Sans.-Buddhist MSS. in R.A.S.B., Vol. I, p. 150.

void (śūnyatā),-and in Vajra-yāna everything is Vajra-i.e., perfect void. In worshipping a god, the god is thought of as of the Vajra-nature, his image is Vajra, -the worshipper is Vajra, the materials of worship are Vajra, the mantras are Vajra,—the processes are Vajra and everything is Vajra. This Vajra, as we have already said, often serves as the stamp of the Vajrayāna. In the Kriyā-samgraha-nāma- pañjikā the names of the goddesses are generally Vajra-rūpinī, Vajrabhāskarī, Vajra-humkarī, Vajra-vilāsinī, Vajra-mohinī, Vajra-khecarī, Vajrāsanī, Vajra-rasanī, Vajra-trāsanī, Vajra-sparśini, Vajra-cetani, Vajra-virāsini, Vajravikāśinī, etc.1 It should also be noticed that the supreme goddess is also called Vajreśvari, or Vajradhātvīśvarī or Vajra-vārāhī. In the rites and worships we find mention of the articles incense, lamp, conchshell, bell, perfumes, flowers, garlands, sisamum (tila), grains (yaba), seat (āsana), flag, jar, cloth, ornaments, fried paddy (laja), unboiled rice (akṣata), offerings (arghya and añjali), the five preparations from cowmilk (pañca-gavya), the five sweets (pañcā-mrta), etc., but all of them invariably bear the stamp of Vajra. 2 There is laughing (hāsya), artistic gesture and movement (lāsya), music, dancing, playing on musical instruments-everything of which is Vajra. We need not multiply the instances. If we examine the Kriyasamgraha we shall find nothing there which has not the determinant Vajra before it. Almost same is the case with the Sādhanas of the Sādhana-mālā. It was the peculiar idea of the Vajra-yanists that anything that bears the epithet vajra before it, necessarily leads one to the realisation of the void-nature of the self and the dharmas. We have seen that even the woman to be adopted for the yogic practices was called the vajra-kanyā or the 'thunder or, void girl,' and so it

Ch. III. MS. pp. 20-21.
 Vide Ibid., pp. 38-40, 49, etc.
 Cf. also Sādhana-mālā, pp. 18-19, 321-22.

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is in the fitness of things that the vehicle (yāna) itself

should be called the Vajra-yana.

It is very interesting to note how in the popular practices and worship of gods, goddesses and even of ghosts and spirits the ideas of Mahāyāna Buddhism lie interspersed. Thus in the selection of the ground for a monastery, forty gods and goddesses are to be meditated on and worshipped in the four quarters. These are,—Pramuditā, Vimalā, Prabhākarī, Arcismatī, Suduriayā, Abhimukhī, Durangamā, Acalā, Sādhumatī and Dharmamegha (i.e., the ten Bodhisattva-bhūmis) in the east facing th ewest; again the ten gods of the nature of the ten pāramitās, viz., Dāna (charity), Sīla (good-conduct), Kṣānti (forbearance), Vīrya (energy), Dhyāna (meditation), Prajñā (wisdom), Upāya (means), Pranidhi (concentration), Bala (strength) and Jñāna (knowledge) in the south; again ten in the west facing the east, viz., Ayuh (life), Citta (mind), Pariskāra (cleanliness), Karma (deed), Upapatti (birth), Siddhi (perfection), Abhimukti (that which is facing perfection), Pranidhāna (concentration), Jāāna (knowledge), and Dharma-vasitā (control of the dharmas); and ten goddesses in the North facing the South of the nature of the ten Dharanis,-viz., Vasumati, Ratnasthā, Usnīsa-vijayā, Māricī, Parna-śavarī, Anekamukhī, Jāngulī, Cundā and Prajñā-vardhinī, Sarvabuddha-kroṣatī. In the description of gods and goddesses we find that as they hold Vajra (thunder), Khadga (sword), Pāśa (noose), Padma (lotus), etc., so also they hold Prajñā-pustaka (the book of knowledge). Bodhi-vrksa (the tree under which knowledge was obtained), etc. In connection with making the bricks for constructing the house it has been said that the brick must be thought of as a mass of nectar and then it should be sprinkled with the auspicious water of the jar and worshipped with the five presents (pañco-

¹ Kriyā-sumgraha-nāma-pañjikā, MS. pp. 6-7.

pahāra) and thus it should be purified; and then they should be meditated on as follows:—"This whole world is of the nature of the Tathāgatas; the Tathāgatas are of the nature of essencelessness—and therefore, the whole world is also of the nature of essencelessness."

In the Sādhanas of the Kriyā-samgraha in the form of worship and the muttering of various Mantras the fundamental aim of producing the Bodhicitta and of relieving the whole world is not lost sight of. Here also we find that through all the Mantras, Mudrā and Maṇḍala and all other rites and ceremonies the Sādhaka is bent on realising the nature of his citta as luminous by nature (prakṛti-prabhāsvara), as the immutable void (vajra); after the realisation of the self as the void, he identifies himself with all the objects of the world and becomes one with all. Even in constructing the image of a god and in establishing it with religious ceremony and in worshipping it with all the elaborate paraphernalia the aim is professed to be the attainment of the Bodhicitta.

If we analyse the Sādhanas of the Sādhana-mālā, we shall see that the ideas of Buddhism are interspersed with polytheistic idolatry. Let us, for instance, examine the Vajrā-sana-sādhanam. Here, first, the Lord Supreme should be thought of with the five Tathāgatas, and then flowers are to be offered. Then the five Tathāgatas and their Saktis are to be saluted and flowers, incense, lamp, and other offerings are to be presented to them. Then the Sādhaka is to meditate on the four Brahma-vihāras, e.g., universal friendship (maitrī), universal compassion (karuṇā), self-contentment (muditā) and absolute indifference (upekṣā). Then he should think in his heart the lunar disc transformed into the letter 'a' and on that the syllable

¹ tothägato yat-svabhävas tat-svabhävam idam jagat | tathägato niḥ-svabhävo niḥ-svabhävam idam jagat | Ibid., MS. p. 21.

² Ibid., pp. 45-50.

'hum' of the colour of gold and then think of the Guru, Buddhas and the Bodhisattvas emanating from the rays of that 'hum'. These Guru, Buddha and Bodhisattvas should then be worshipped; then follow the confession of sins and the acceptance of the merits; then follow the taking shelter to the three jewels, e.g., Buddha, Dharma and Sangha, and the adoption of the path followed by the Jinas (the self-conquered) and then the production of the Bodhicitta. Then follows the meditation on the void (śūnyatā), and then the realization of the nature of all the dharmas as essenceless and the realization of the self as luminous, of the form of the immutable Bodhicitta; for the stabilization of this state the following Mantra should be chanted,-"Naturally pure are all the dharmas, and by nature pure am I!" After this follow the other details of the Sādhana. This in general is the nature of many of the Sādhanas that are collected in the Sādhana-mālā. It

Sådhana-måla, Vol. I (G.O.S.), pp. 18-19. In the Khasarpanasādhana we find that first of all Lord Khasarpana should be saluted and worshipped; then the Sadhaka should confess his sin before the Lord and take the vow that he will follow the merits of the Buddhas. the son of the Buddhas (i.e., the Bodhisattvas), the reverend ones and others and develop them to perfect enlightenment; then as usual he takes refuge in the three jewels of Buddha, Dharma and Sangha. Then he takes the resolution of producing the Bodhicitta for the well-being and deliverance of all, and adopts the path followed by the Sugatas and their followers. Then he should think of the world of static and dynamic as all void and place himself in the void with the Mantra, 'om I am of the nature of the immutable knowledge of the void.' Then he should realise that all the dharmas are pure by nature and he too is pure by nature and then he should read, 'Naturally pure are all the dharmas, pure am I by nature—amen!' Then the Sadhaka should realise himself as pure consciousness (vijnāna-mātrā-tmaka) and then think of a lotus of the colour of the universe (viśva-varna-kamala) transformed as the syllable 'pam' and on that a clear lunar disc emanating from the letter 'a' and on that the syllable 'hrih' which is radiating rays which cover the sky; and then see all these terms formed into a full-blown, variously decorated lotus with its seed within. Then the self should be meditated on as the transformation of all these and as the Lord himself; and then follows the list of the gods and goddesses with the detail of their descriptions and the order in which they should be meditated on by the either side of the Lord with their bijas and Mantras, etc.

is remarkable that many of the Mantras here are nothing but the well-known doctrines of Mahāyāna Buddhism with the addition of an 'om' or 'phaṭ' or 'svāhā', etc., 'with them. Another remarkable feature of these Sādhanas is the construction of the mental images of the lunar and the solar discs with the scheme of the colours and the various lotuses often with full decorations forming the canvas, as it were, for the objects of meditation; this seems to be significant from the yoga point of view.

¹ The most general Mantras, as we have already noticed, are:--

⁽i) om śūnyatā-jñāna-vajra-svabhāvā-tmako'ham!

⁽ii) om svabhāva-śuddhāh sarva-dharmāh svabhava-śuddho'ham | In addition other Mantras like—

⁽i) om sarva-tathägatä-tmako'ham |

⁽ii) om dharma-dhātu-svabhāvā-tmako'ham | etc. are also found.

CHAPTER IV

THE THEOLOGICAL POSITION OF THE TANTRIC BUDDHISTS

We have said in a previous chapter that the most important and the most interesting study in the Buddhist Tantras is that of the gradual transformation of Mahāyānic ideas into an esoteric theology and the association of the esoteric Yogic practices with them. We repeat here that it may not be a fact that the practices are there solely because of this theology; on the contrary we are inclined to postulate great influence of these practices in evolving the doctrinal theology through the gradual transformation of the Mahāyānic ideas. Let us now have some idea about the transformation of some of the main Mahāyānic thoughts into Tāntric esoterism.

(1) Vajra And Vajrasattva.

In the transformation of the ideology of Mahā-yāna into Vajra-yāna the first thing to note is the transformation of the idea of Sūnyatā into the idea of Vajra. The word Vajra, commonly rendered as the thunderbolt, is taken here to connote the immutable adamantine nature of the dharmas. It has been said,—"Sūnyatā, which is firm, substantial, indivisible and impenetrable, incapable of being burnt and imperishable, is called Vajra." To realise the Vajra nature of things is, therefore, to realise the ultimate void nature of things. Some of the most important Mantras of the Vajra-yānists are,—"I am of the adamantine nature, which is Sūnyatā-knowledge." "All the

dıdham saram asausiryam acchedya-bhedya-lakşanam adahi avinasi ca sunyata vajram ucyate Advaya-vajra-samgraha, p. 37 (G.O.S.).

Cf. abhedyam vajram ity uktam, Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 2(A).
Cf. also,—sūnyatā vajram ity uktam, Jvālāvalī-vajra-mālātantra.
MS., B.N., No. 47, p. 1(B).

om śūnyatā-jāāna-vajra-svabhāvā-tmako'ham

dharmas are of the adamantine nature, I am also of the adamantine nature."

We have seen before that the word Vajra-yāna, which is the name for Tāntric Buddhism in general, really means the Śūnyatā-yāna—the path of void which is the adamantine path. We have also seen that this Vajra served as the stamp, as it were, of the Tāntric Buddhists, showing thereby that the aim of the Vajra-yānists in and through all the paraphernalia of Mantras and Tantras was nothing but the realisation of the adamantine void-nature of the self and the not-self.

Who is then the Vajra-sattva? He is the Being of adamantine substance—the ultimate principle as the unity of the universe. It has been said,-"By vajra is meant Sūnyatā, and by sattva is implied pure consciousness; the identity of the two follows from the nature of Vajra-sattva." Here it seems that the ultimate principle of the Vijnanavadins as pure consciousness (vijñapti-mātratā), which is pure knowledge and as such identical with Sunyata in the form of the absence of subjectivity and objectivity, is the Vajra-sattva. It has again been said, "Sūnyatā is said to be Vajra, and all manifestation in form is said to be sattva; Vajra-sattva implies the unity and the identity of the two." In other words the Vajra-sattva is the Abhūta-parikalpa of the Vijnanavadins, where both Sunyata and the world-manifestation remain unrecognisably unified. But the fundamental departure of the Tantric Buddhists from the standpoint of the Vijnanavadin Buddhists is that the ultimate principle

¹ vajrā-tmakāḥ sarva-dharmā vajrā-tmako'ham |

vajreņa sūnyatā proktā sattvena jāāna-mātratā | tādātmyam anayoh siddham vajra-sattva-svabhāvataḥ || Advaya-vajra-samgraha, p. 24.

³ šūnyatā vajram ityuktam ākāraḥ sattvam ucyate | tādātmyam anayor aikyam vajra-sattva iti smṛtaḥ || Jvālāvalī-vajra-mālā-tantra. MS. B.N. Sans. No. 47, p. 1(B).

of the Vajra-vanists, however negatively it might have sometimes been described, was tacitly conceived and more often frankly described as a Being-sometimes as the personal God, the Lord Supreme. Though the Vajra-sattva is free from all existence and nonexistence, he, nevertheless, is endowed with the potency of all form and existences and is himself the embodiment of loveliness. 1

This Vajra-sattva, as the Lord Supreme of the Tantric Buddhists, representing a monotheistic conception of the Godhead, has variously been described in the Buddhist Tantras with all sorts of positive and negative attributes. He is the Bhagavan as he possesses all the six excellences; or he is called the Bhagavan as he possesses bhaga which means that which breaks or removes; Śūnyatā or Prajñā removes all afflictions and drives away the Māra and so śūnyatā is called the bhaga. He is saluted as the Sūnyatā-essence, transcending all imagination, omniscient, embodiment of pure wisdom. ' He is the abode of all merits and is of the nature of all the beings. 4 He is the Being without origination and destruction, the all-good, the soul-substance of all. the enlightened one-including in him all the static and the dynamic. Perfect knowledge is his only eye, he is the stainless embodiment of knowledge, pure, allpervading, the subtle seed (of all creation), the immutable. ' He eternally belongs to all the elements. to all the beings-he remains pervading all the bodies in the form of the flow of consciousness (citta-dhārā):

¹ bhava-bhava-vinirmukto vajra-sattvah sucintitah || sarvā-kāra-varopetah asecanaka-vigrahah Pañca-krama, MS. p. 27(A).

² bhañjanam bhagam akhyātam kleśa-mārā-di-bhañjanāt | prajňā-bādhyāś ca teklešās tasmāt prajňā bhago'cyate Hevajra-tantra, MS. R.A.S.B.

³ Prajño-pāya-viniścaya-siddhi, Ch. III, Verse 9.

⁴ Ibid., Ch. V, Verse 45. ⁵ Jñāna-siddhi, p. 84.

iñānaika-cakşur amalo jñāna-mūrtis tathāgatah niskalah sarvago vyāpī sūksma-vijam anāsravah | Quoted in the Jñāna-siddhi, Ch. XV.

he is immutable, unthinkable, pure, passionless, perfect void like the sky, free from existence and non-existence. He is sometimes spoken of as of the nature of infinite bliss (mahāsukha); this, we shall see later on, is a great innovation which moulded the whole Tantric system in a different form.

The idea of the Dharma-kāya Buddha, discussed before, may be recalled in connection with this idea of the Vajra-sattva. The Dharma-kāya of the Mahā-yānists seems to have been replaced by this Vajra-sattva or the Vajra-kāya of the Vajra-yānists. The Vajra-kāya has often been identified with the Dharma-kāya,

pratyātma-vedyo bhagavān upamā-varjitah prabhuḥ| sarvagah sarva-vyāpī ca kartā hartā jagat-patih || śrī-mān vajra-sattvo'sau vyakta-bhāva-prakāśakah|

MS., C.L.B., p. 91(A). Elsewhere he is saluted as the Sūnyatā-essence, free from all constructive imagination, producing right knowledge; he is perfect wisdom personified, he is the remover of illusion, the preacher of the pure truth, born of the non-essential nature of the dharmas; he is Bodhicitta, from him come all the perfectly enlightened ones, all the Bodhisattvas, all truth and all the highest moral virtues. He represents the three jewels, the great way to salvation, the reality in all the static and the dynamic, he is all that are the transformations of the three elements.—

namas te śūnyatā-garbha sarva-sankalpa-varjita | sarva-prajñāna-sandoha jñāna-mūrte namas tu te || jagad-ajñāna-vicchedī śuddha-tattvā-rtha-deśakaḥ | dharma-nairātmya-sambhūta vajra-sattva namas tu te || ratna-trayam mahāyānam tattva-sthāvara-jangamam | trai-dhātukam idam sarvam jagad-vīra namas tu te ||

Sampuţikā, MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 4854), p. 12(B).
Cf. also,—suvisūddha-mahājñānam sarva-deva-svarūpakam |
vajra-sattva iti khyātam param sukham udāhrtam |
svayambhū-rūpam etat tu dharma-kāya-svarūpakam |
tasyaiva sahajā prajñā sthitā tadgata-rūpiņī |

Ibid., MS. p. 48(B).

* sa caiva sarva-bhāvena sarvadā samavasthitah |
anādi-nidhanah sattvo vaira-sattvah param sukham |
Quoted in the Jāāna-siddhi, Ch. XV.

Cf. also, -Advaya-samatā-vijaya.

¹ Srī-vajra-maṇdalā-laṅkāra, quoted in the Jñāna-siddhi, p. 84. Descriptions of this type abound in the Buddhist Tantras. In the Vyakta-bhāvānugata-tattva-siddhi the Lord Vajra-sattva is saluted as the Lord to be realised by the individual soul, the Lord without parallel, all-moving, all-pervading, the only doer, the only destroyer, the Lord Supreme over the world, the revealer of potentialities.—

but often this Vajra-kāya has been conceived as a fourth body added to the three kāyas of the Mahā-yānists; in the Sahajiyā sect, or the Sahaja-yāna, which is a mere offshoot of the Vajra-yāna, the Vajra-sattva or the Vajra-kāya has been transformed into the Sahaja-kāya, which is decidedly a fourth body conceived above the Dharma-kāya.

A little thought over the nature of the Vajra-sattva discussed above will reveal that the conception of this Vaira-sattva is almost the same as the monistic conception of the godhead variously conceived in Hinduism. It is a well-known fact that Mahāyāna Buddhism was gradually coming closer and closer to the Upanisadic ideas and that many Vedantic ideas were tacitly . implied in the Sūnyavāda and Vijñānavāda doctrines. We have also hinted before how the Mahāvānic idea of the Dharma-kava came nearer to the idea of a monotheistic godhead in popular faith. But what was tacitly implied in Mahāvāna was fully developed. consciously or unconsciously, by the Vaira-vanists. The monistic conception of the Brahman is already there in the conception of the Dharma-käya Buddha, and this conception finds its full expression in the conception of the Vajra-sattva, who is pure consciousness purged off of all the impurities of subjectivity and objectivity; he is pervading the whole universe-the inner principle of all dharmas-the unity in diversity; he is a Being of infinite wisdom and merit, possessing universal compassion-he is the Lord Buddha.

As a matter of fact, this Vajra-sattva is generally taken in the Buddhist Tantras as the Supreme Being and many of the Tantras begin with salutations to this Lord Supreme in terms which are equally applicable to the Brahman also. ¹ It is also interesting to note

¹ Cf. the salutation at the beginning of the Pañca-krama: trailakyā-cāra-muktam gagana-samagatam sarva-bhāva-

durbodham durvicāram sva-para-hitatamam vyāpinam nirnimittam

that all the Buddhist Tantras of the Sangīti-type 'open with a galaxy of the Buddhas, Bodhisattvas and innumerable other heavenly, terrestrial as well as ghostly beings assembled to listen to the words of the Lord Supreme, who is none but the Vajra-sattva.

The most striking feature of Vajra-yāna associated with the conception of the Vajra-sattva is the importance attached to the self. According to the Upaniṣads, the Brahman, who is both immanent and transcendent, is to be realised within as the self. Brahma-realisation really means the realisation of the self as the Brahman. The Buddhist Tantras also say that the Sādhaka, who realises the Vajra-sattva, himself becomes the Vajra-sattva. To realise the Vajra-sattva is to realise that all existence is nothing but Śūnyatā in its pure nature; but once the Sādhaka becomes endowed with this wisdom through his realisation, he becomes the Vajra-

śuddham śantam viviktam parama-śwamayam yoginam eva gamyam, etc.

Cf. also,—namo vajra-sattvāya | pranipatya jagan-nātham sarva-jinavarā-reitam | sarva-buddhamayam siddhi-vyāpinam gagano-pamam | sarvadam sarva-sattvebhyah sarvajñam varavajrinam | bhaktyā'ham sarva-bhāvena vakṣye tat-sādhanam param | Jūāna-siddhi, Ch. I, Verses 1-2.

Cf. also,—the salutations at the beginning of Advaya-siddhi (MS. C.L.B. No. 13124), Tattva-siddhi (MS. C.L.B. No. 13124), Acintyā-dvaya-kramo-padeśa (MS. C.L.B. 13124), Catur-mudrā (MS. C.L.B. 13124), Vajrayāna-sādhanā-ngāni (MS. R.A.S.B. No. 4837), Şodaša-mānasī-bhava-cakra (MS. R.A.S.B. No. 10741B), etc.

The Sangiti is the type of Buddhist literature which invariably opens with an assembly of the faithful devotees to whom Lord Buddha would preach all truth, and this type of literature also invariably opens with a sentence like this:—evam mayā srutam ekasmin samaye, etc. (Cj. Gandha-vamsa, Pali Text-book Society.) These Buddhist Tantras are called the Buddha-vacanas (or the sayings of the Buddha) and in Tibetan translations they form an important part of the Kangyur collection while the translations of the texts, which are composed by the Buddhist Acaryas themselves, form part of the Tangyur collection.

sa eva bhagavān mahā-vajra-dharaḥ sarva-buddha-jñānā-dhipatir iti | Sri-guhya-samāja, Ch. XVII.

sattva. He is also called the Mahā-sattva as he is full of the bliss of infinite knowledge; and as he is always engaged in the right method of religious observances (samaya), he is called the Samaya-sattva; as he is eternally associated with the disciplinary practices for the attainment of wisdom, he is called the Bodhisattva, and as associated with perfect wisdom, he is called the Jñāna-sattva. It is emphatically said in the Jñāna-siddhi that our Bodhi-mind, which is of the nature of the Vajra, is itself the Buddhahood; so Buddhahood should be realised through conceiving all things as the self.2 In such a stage a man realises himself in all things, everywhere, in all aspects, by all means and for all time, and he realises the universalised . self as the universal perfectly enlightened one." This realisation of the self as the highest being is the realisation of the self as God (devatā) and the process is technically called the svādhi-daivata-yoga. It is frequently prescribed that the self should be realised as God and then it should be worshipped with all the usual rites and rituals. In the Prajñopāya-viniścaya-siddhi it is said that the Lord is of the nature of all existence in the form of the Bodhicitta; he is the Lord, the holder

¹ abhedyam vajram ity uktam sattvam tri-bhavasyaikatā | anayā prajāayā yuktam vajra-sattva iti smṛtaḥ || mahā-jñāna-rasaiḥ pūrņo mahā-sattvo nigadyate | nityam samaya-pravṛttatvāt samaya-sattvo vidhīyate || bodhi-caryā-samāsena bodhi-sattvam nigadyate | prajāā-jāāna-samāyogāt jāāna-sattvas tathāgatah || MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 11317) p. 2(A).

² bodhicittam idam vajram sarva-buddhatvam ātmanaḥ | tasmāt sarvātma-yogena sarva-buddhatvam āpnute | Jñāna-siddhi, Ch. XV.

^{*} sarvatra sarvatah sarvam sarvathā sarvadā svayam | sarva-buddhamayam siddham svamātmānam prapašyati || Ibid., Ch. XV, Verse 52.

⁴ Cf. svādhidaivata-yogena sarvam ekam vikalpayet. Abhidhāno-ttara. MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 10739) p. 7(A).

sarva-bhogo-pabhogai (śca) sevyamānair yathāsukham | svādhi-daivata-yogena svam ātmānam prapūjayet || Ch. XV, Verse 54.

of the thunder, and this self verily is God.1 It is found in most of these Sādhanas that gods and goddesses are first of all to be thought of on the solar or the lunar disc or on the lotus, but the whole group is then to be meditated on within as identical with the self. The Svādhisthāna-krama of the Pañca-krama gives a very clear exposition of this theory of self-worship. The Yogin is first of all to meditate on the nature of the world, and through deep concentration of the mind to realise the nature of the phenomenal world as purely illusory; then he is to realise the Vajra-sattva who is free from all the categories of existence and nonexistence, who is endowed with all the forms, yet of whom no form can be conceived, and then it is added that to realise the self is to realise this Vajra-sattva. The self is described here as the all-powerful, the universal Buddhahood, and, therefore, it has been prescribed that with all care the self should always be worshipped.2 All the Mantras and Mudras and Mandalas-everything should be applied to the worship of the self. The chapter concludes with the injunction that everything should first of all be realised in its Sūnyatā-nature and then should be thought of as the self.3 This realisation of the self in all as of the immutable and all-pervading nature is the svādhisthāna (affirmation of the self) and this svādhisthāna is the secret of all Yogas.

With the evolution of the idea of the Vajra-sattva as the Lord Supreme there evolved a new pantheon in Vajra-yāna. The Vajra-sattva is the Primal Enlight-

sarva-bhāva-svabhāvo'yam bodhicitta-svarūpatah sa eva bhagavān vajrī tasmād ātmaiva devatā Ch. V. Verse 33.

² ātmā vai sarva-buddhatvam sarva-sauritvam eva ca tasmāt sarva-prayatnena hy ātmānam pūjayet sadā || MS. p. 27(B).

³ bahunātra kim uktena vajra-yoge tu tattvatah | yad yad ālambayed yogī tat tad ātmaiva kalpayet || Ibid., MS. p. 27(B).

⁴ Ibid., MS. p. 28(B).

ened One-the Adi-Buddha. This Lord Supreme possesses five kinds of knowledge which are like five attributes of the Lord. From these five attributes proceed five kinds of meditation (dhyāna) and from these five kinds of Dhyana emanate five deities who are known as the five Dhyānī Buddhas. These Dhyānī Buddhas are the five presiding deities over the five skandhas, viz., rūpa (material element), vedanā (feeling), samijāā (conceptual knowledge), samskāra (synthetic compound mental states), and vijnana (consciousness). The deities are (1) Vairocana, (2) Ratna-sambhava or Ratna-ketu (vide, Śri-guhyasamāja, p. 12), or Ratna-nātha (vide, Panca-krama, Ch. I), (3) Amitābha, or Amitāyus (vide, Śri-guhyasamāja, p. 12), (4) Amogha-siddhi, or Karma-nātha (vide, Pañca-krama) and (5) Aksobhya respectively. 2

This pantheon of the five Dhyānī Buddhas seems to have evolved in later Buddhism with some influence from the Sānkhya philosophy. The five skandhas of the Buddhists were confusedly mixed up with the pañca-bhūtas (five material elements) of the Sānkhya, viz., earth (kṣiti), water (ap), fire (tejas), air (marut) and ether (vyoma). These five material elements, together with the five sense-organs, proceed, according to the Sānkhya, from the five Tan-mātras or potential elements or generic essences of sound, touch, colour, taste and smell. The word Tan-mātra may broadly be explained as that in and through which the unmanifested and unspecified reality (tat) is measured, i.e., manifested and specified. In this sense the five Tan-

¹ In the Śrī-cakra-sambhāra-tantra these five deities are explained as the five aspects of wisdom coming from the unobstructed mind; they are the Dhyāni Buddhas, whereas the presiding deities over the five skandhas are Vairocana (rūpa), Vajra-sūrya (vedanā), Padmanarteśvara (sam̄jāā), Rāja-vajra (sam̄skāra) and Buddha Vajra-sattva (vijāānā). Ch. on 'The good wishes'.

² rūpa-vedanā-sam̄jāā-sam̄skāra-vijāānam eva ca

rupa-vedana-samyna-samskara-vijnānam eva ca| pañca-buddha-svabhāvan tu skandho-tpatti-viniscitam || Vaisa-vārāhī kalna mahātartra MS D A S D

Vajra-vārāhī-kalpa-mahātantra. MS, R.A.S.B., No. 11285, p. 10(A).

mātras may remind us of the five kinds of knowledge of the Primal Lord which are popularly conceived as the five attributes of the Lord, and from these five attributes of knowledge follow the five kinds of Dhyanas, from which again proceed the five Dhyani Buddhas, who are again the presiding deities over the five aggregates (skandhas). The nature of these five kinds of iñana is not explained anywhere; but they seem to be five kinds of creative potencies in the ultimate nature of the Lord, which is pure consciousness.1 We have seen before that in Vijnanavada Buddhism the ultimate reality as the Abhūta-parikalpa, though bereft of all subjectivity and objectivity, possesses in it the potency of world creation. The nature of this creative potency is also knowledge and from five kinds of such knowledge there proceed five kinds of specification in the pure consciousness of the Lord and these five kinds of specification of consciousness are the five kinds of Dhyanas which are again the generic essences of the five skandhas.

In the Tantric literature these five Dhyani Buddhas are described with their Saktis or divine consorts. Each Dhyani Buddha has got a particular consort, a particular colour, crest, Mudrā (posture) and Vāhana; each again has a particular Bodhisattva, a human Buddha, a bija-mantra, a location, and each is again associated with a particular Kula or family; they are again associated with the pañca-bhūtas, and the five sense-organs of sight, sound, touch, taste and smell. They are again placed in different parts of the human body. The whole thing may be illustrated with the

¹ The five kinds of jñāna, according to the Advaya-vajrasaṃgraha, are (i) suviśuddha-dharma-dhātu-jñāna producing (?)
Vairocana, (ii) ādarśa-jñāna, producing Akṣobhya, (iii) pratyavekṣanā-jñāna producing Amitābha, (iv) samatā-jñāna, producing
Ratna-sambhava, and (v) kṛtyānuṣṭhāna-jñāna, producing Amoghasiddhi. The dhyāna for creation in general is known as lokasaṃsarjana.

help of the table given in the next page (the controversies being ignored).

These five Dhyani Buddhas are also called the five Tathagatas and in the hierarchy of the Pañca-tathagatas Aksobhya, the presiding deity over vijñāna is, often given the highest place and the first four Tathagatas are generally marked by the miniature of the fifth Tathagata Aksobhya, and the latter again in his turn is marked by the miniature of the Vajra-sattva. The marking of the first four Tathagatas by the miniature of Aksobhya implies that the first four skandhas are nothing but modes and modifications of consciousness,2 they are the constructions from the consciousness. But the vijnāna, as one of the aggregates is not the ultimate reality, pure consciousness which is absolutely free from the notions of the grāhya and the grāhaka is the ultimate reality, and this ultimate principle of void is the Vajra-sattva, and, therefore, even Aksobhya is marked by the miniature figure of Vajra-sattva.

This Vajra-sattva is not merely of the nature of Sūnyatā, it is a non-dual state of Sūnyatā and Karuṇā; to imply that the void-consciousness is also of the nature of an identity of both Sūnyatā and Karuṇā, Akṣobhya is marked by the Vajra-sattva. Thus the Vajra-sattva is identified with the Bodhicitta. It is said that when Prajñā or the Sūnyatā-knowledge

¹ For this, see Śri-guhya-samāja, Advaya-vajra-samgraha (Chs. on Pañca-tathāgata-mudrā-vivarana and Pañcākāra), Hevajratantra, Ch. IX, Samputikā, Ch. I, Pañca-krama, Ch. I, The Gods of Northern Buddhism by A. Getty, Buddhist Iconography by Dr. B. Bhattacharya, pp. 1-8, and An Introduction to Buddhist Esoterism by Dr. B. Bhattacharya, Ch. XIII.

² Pañca-tathāgata-mudrā-vivaraņa in Advaya-vajra-samgraha. Cj. also,—rūpa-vedanā-samiñā-samskāra-skandhā-tmakā vairocana-ratna-samhhavā-mitābhā-moghasiddhayo vijñāna-mātratā iti pratipādanāya aksobhyeņa mudryante iti | Pañcākāra, Advaya-vajra-samgraha, p. 42.

³ Vijñāna here seems to be taken in the sense of 'awareness'.
 ⁴ vijñānasya naihsvabhāvyasya śūnyatā-karunayos tādātmaka-(tvam) ca pratipādayitum aksobhyo'pi vajra-sattvena mudryate. Ibid., p. 42.

Loca- tion in the human body	Head	Heart	Navel	Mouth	Legs
Element (bluta), sense- perception and sense- organ	Vyoma (ether) Sound (sabda) Ear	Marut (air) Touch (sparsa) Skin	Tejas (fire) Vision (rūpa) Eye	Water (ap) Taste (rasa) Tongue	Earth (ksiti) Smell (gandha) Nose
Bija	"a" oor "om"	"y" or "hum"	or "Svā"	or "ab"	or. "ha"
Posture (Mudrā)	Dragon Dharma- cakra	Bhū- sparśa	Varada	Samā- dhi	Abhaya Viśva- vajra
Human Kula Mount Buddha (Family) (Vāhana)	Dragon	Ele- phant	Lion	Peacock	Samaya Garuda
Kula (Family)	Moha	Dveşa	Cintā- maņi	Raga	Samaya
Human Buddha	Kraku- echanda	Kanaka- Dveşa muni	Kāšya- pa	Gau- tama	Mai- treya
Bodhi- sattva	Samanta- bhadra or Cakra- pāņi	Vajra. pāņi	Ratna- pāņi	Padma- pāņi, or Avalokite- svara	Viśvapāņi
Sakti	Vajra- dhātve- śvari or Tarā	Locana	Māmaki	Pan- darā	Ārya- tārā or Tārā
Colour	White	Blue	Yellow	Red	Green
Direc- tion	Centre	East	South	West	North
Skan-dha	Rüpa	Vi- jūāna	Vedanā	Samjñā	Sams- kāra
nphimi O.P. 105—18	Vairocana	Aksobhya	Katna- sambhava	-Amitabha	Amogha- siddhi

commingles with universal compassion, there remains no thinker, no thinkable, no thought: this is the state of non-duality, this is called the Bodhicitta—this is the adamantine truth—this is the Vajra-sattva—the perfectly enlightened one (sambuddha), this is perfect wisdom.¹ This Vajra-sattva (or Vajra-dhara, as he is sometimes called) is also described in the Tantras with his consort variously called as Vajra-sattvātmikā, Vajra-vārāhī, Prajñā, Prajñā-pāramitā, etc. and his bija-mantra is hum.² This Vajra-sattva, the Lord Supreme of the Tāntric Buddhists, is found in the Buddhist Tantras bearing many other names of which the most important are Hevajra and Heruka.

(ii) Bodhicitta

(A) GENERAL CONCEPTION OF BODHICITTA

In the previous discussion we have seen that the self as the Vajra-sattva has often been said to be the Bodhicitta. The original meaning of the word Bodhicitta is citta or consciousness as bodhi or perfect wisdom. Now, in earlier Buddhism wisdom meant śūnyatā-jñāna—the realisation of the nothingness of the world; but we have seen, in Mahāyāna wisdom means śūnyatā-jñāna complemented by Karuṇā or universal compassion. Bodhicitta in Mahāyāna then implies the state of the citta where a perfect comming of Sūnyatā and Karuṇā becomes the very essence of our consciousness. In the Buddhist Tantras the word Bodhicitta, though sometimes used in its older sense of śūnyatā-jñāna, generally implies the Mahāyānic sense of the unification

meaning of the word Bodhicitta and though at the end of the discussion Bodhicitta is described as the unity of Sūnyatā and Karuṇā the earlier discussion is dominated by the older sense of the word as the

¹ etad advayam ity uktam bodhicittam idam param | vajram śri-vajra-sattvam ca sambuddho bodhir eva ca || Prajno-pāya-viniscaya-siddhi, Ch. IV, Verse 17.

² Cf. tan-madhye tu humkāram vajra-sattva-svarūpakam, etc.

Heruka-tantra. MS. R.A.S.B., No. 11279, p. 28(A).

³ In the Śri-guhya-samāja we have a detailed discussion on the meaning of the word Bodhinitta and the state of the word.

of the two elements of Sūnyatā and Karuṇā. Breathing the general spirit of Mahāyāna, Saraha-pāda says in one of his Dohās, "He who discards Karuṇā and sticks to Sūnyatā alone never have access to the right path; he, again, who meditates only on Karuṇā, is not liberated even in thousands of birth; he on the other hand, who can mingle Sūnyatā with Karuṇā, remains neither in bhava (existence) nor in nirvāṇa

realisation of the essencelessness of the dharmas. Here the Lord is approached by the Tathāgatas of the assembly to explain to them the nature of the Bodhicitta. The Lord does not make any direct reply, but asks them first to realise the oneness pervading the body, speech and mind. Through the realisation of the homogeneity underlying the body, speech and mind the Tathāgatas realise that all origination is talked of about what is essentially unproduced. The Lord then becomes absorbed in a special kind of meditation and exclaims,—

abhāve bhāvanā-bhāvo bhāvanā naiva bhāvanā | iti bhāvo na bhāvah syād bhāvanā no'palabhyate |

The meaning of the verse, as explained in the Sekoddeśa-tīkā (G.O.S., p. 41), is that when existence is viewed from the perspective of the void (abhāva), no thought-construction remains a positive thought-

construction, and existence also ceases to be existence.

After this, Vairocana Tathagata exclaims in his meditation on the nature of Bodhicitta, - 'My citta is devoid of all (notions of) existence, it is unassociated with any skandha, dhātu, āyatana, - or with subjectivity and objectivity,-it is without origination and is of the nature of void as are all the dharmas by nature'. Aksobhya exclaims in his own turn,-'All existence is without origination; there is no dharma, neither any essence of the dharmas; all this is essenceless like the sky, -this is the immutable bodhi'. We find an echo of the same truth in the exclamation of Ratnaketu (or Ratna-sambhava), who says, - 'Unreal are all the dharmas, -for they (dharmas) have no definition (laksana); everything originates from the essencelessness of the dharmas (dharma-nairātmya), and this is called the immutable bodhi'. Amitāyus (Amitābha) in his turn gives another description of the Bodhicitta; he says,—'All the dharmas being without origination there is neither any existence nor any notion of existence: existence of things is spoken of in exactly the same way as the existence of the sky.' Then comes the turn of Amoghasiddhi, who exclaims in his deep meditation that all the dharmas are effulgent by nature, they are perfectly pure like the sky. Then they all join in reciting the gatha in praise of the Bodhicitta which is described here as of the nature of pure truth, pure entity (śuddhā-rtha), originating from the non-essential nature of things, filling the Buddhas with pure knowledge (bodhi), without thought-construction, without any support, good all round, benevolent, the inspirer of the bodhi-mind, -embodiment of the practices for the Bodhicitta, immutable by nature.

(extinction)". The Bodhicitta state of the self is thus a transcendental state—it is a state of supreme realisation transcending both bhava and nirvāṇa. The self in this state of Bodhicitta is the supreme reality—it is the Vajra-sattva. It is "without a beginning, without an end, quiescent, it is immutable in existence as well as in non-existence, it is the non-duality of Sūnyatā and Karuṇā." It is eternal resplendent, pure, the abode of all the Jinas, it includes all the dharmas within it, it is divine—the cause of the whole universe."

(B) SUNYATA AND KARUNA AS PRAJNA AND UPAYA

Sūnyatā and Karuṇā are widely termed as Prajñā and Upāya respectively in Tāntric Buddhism. Sūnyatā is called Prajñā simply because it represents perfect knowledge. So far as an individual Sādhaka is concerned, this perfect knowledge is rather a static or negative state of mind which separates the individual from the world of suffering beings; Karuṇā, on the other hand, acts in his mind like a dynamic force—the moral inspi-

karunā chaddi jo suņņahi laggu | naū so pāvai uttima maggu | ahavā karunā kevala bhāvaī | jamma-sahassahi mokkha na pāvaī | suņņa karunā jaī joūņu sakkaī | naū bhave naū nivvāņe thakkai |

—Dr. P. C. Bagchi's Edition, p. 29.

anādi-nidhanam śāntam bhāvā-bhāvā-kṣayam vibhum sūnyatā-karuṇā-bhinnam bodhicittam iti smṛtam srī-guhya-samāja, Ch. XVIII.

This definition of Bodhicitta has been commented upon in the Jñāna-siddhi, where it is said that by the epithet 'without beginning and end' is implied the absence of origination and destruction, and by that again is implied the all-pervading, unchanging and eternal nature of the Bodhicitta. It is quiescent because all the kleśas (afflictions) end here; it is the lord, because it performs all the mundane as well as supra-mundane duties. It is śūnyatā because of the essence-lessness of all the dharmas,—and it is karunā because of the resolution in it of elevating all the beings to the state of perfect wisdom, and helping them in attaining perfect peace. (G.O.S.) pp. 72-73.

Inityam prabhāsvaram śuddham bodhicittam jinā-layam

nītyam prabhāsvaram suddham bodhicittam jinā-layam sarva-dharmamayam divyam nikhilā-spada-kāraṇam || —Prajno-pāya-viniscaya-siddhi, Ch. II, Verse 29. ration that prompts one to find oneself universalised in an emotion of deep compassion. This moral inspiration as purified by perfect knowledge induces a man to moral activities, which never bind the man, but liberates him as well as others. Prajñā is passive by nature, the religious inspiration is derived from the active emotion of compassion, which serves like the means or the expedience (upāya) for the realisation of the highest goal. Prajñā is the one universal principle, the oneness as the 'suchness' (tathatā) underlying the diversity of the phenomenal world, while the Upaya is the principle that brings down our mind again to the world of particulars. Through Prajñā one is purified, while Upāya draws one's perfectly purified mind down to the world of particulars where the helpless beings are found suffering the miseries of life. This Upava prompts man to benevolent activities for the removal of sorrow, but as already hinted, these moral activities are always associated with and guided by Prajñā, which is the ultimate principle of purification, and thus they cannot leave any good or bad impression as samskara on the mind of a man, so that by these activities he is never again bound in the snare of vāsanā and samskara and consequently in the cycle of birth and death. Further we have seen, Prajñā or Śūnyatā makes one view the whole of existence from the paramarthika point of view where there is neither suffering nor happiness and consequently no scope left for the spirit of benevolence; it is Upaya that draws our attention to the world of suffering and inspires one to sacrifice one's salvation for the removal of the miseries of the suffering world.

The use of the term Prajñā for Śūnyatā is well known in Buddhist philosophy and literature, they are often treated as synonyms; but the use of the term Upāya for Karuṇā seems to be somewhat technical. On the authority of Suzuki we find that these conceptions of Prajñā and Upāya are already there from the

time of Aśvaghoṣa. It is said in his Awakening of Faith in Mahāyāna (Mahāyāna-śraddhotpāda-sūtra) that Enlightenment a priori has two attributes, viz., (I) Pure wisdom (Prajñā) and (II) Incomprehensible activity (Upāya? Karuṇā). Later on the word Upāya is found widely used in Mahāyāna texts for Karuṇā. In standard Mahāyāna texts Upāya has generally been used to indicate missionary activities mainly in the form of preaching the truth among lay people to remove their veil of ignorance and to enable them to realise the truth.

What is said above about Prajñā and Upāya and their union has variously been expounded in the Buddhist Tantras under various imageries. In the Hevajratantra Upāya and Prajñā have been described under the imagery of the Yogin and the Mudrā (the great woman to be adopted in Yoga-sādhanā), and the Bodhicitta is the perfect union of this Yogin and the Mudrā who stand for Karuṇā and Śūnyatā respectively. In all classes of Buddhist Tantras the most important thing is the stress on this union of Prajñā and Upāya, either

P. 66. Also cf., p. 99.

² Nāgārjuna used the word Upāya for Karuņā (vide, Mādhyamikavṛtti, Lévi's edition, p. 2).

³ Vide, Saddharma-pundarīka-sūtra, Ch. II, pp. 28-58, Bibliotheca Buddhica publication.

In the Bodhipakṣya-paṭala of the Bodhisattva-bhūmi this upāya-kauśala is said to be of twelve kinds in all; six from the internal side concerning the adoption of the religion preached by Buddha, and six from the external side concerning the fruition of the essence. (Edited by Unrai Wogihara, p. 26.) For a detailed discussion on the divisions of upāya-kauśala see Bodhisattva-bhūmi (which is but the fifteenth section of the Yogācāra-bhūmi of Vasu-bandhu), pp. 262-72.

^{*} krpo-pāyo bhaved yogī mudrā hetu-viyogatah | sūnyatā karunā-bhinnam bodhicittam iti smrtam | -Patala X, MS. p. 30(A).

The commentary says that the state of mind that feels the self-sameness in all the beings is compassion, and it is the 'great means' (upāya) as it is the means for attaining perfect enlightenment;—and that is also the Yogin,—for, that is the cardinal principle of a Yogin. The mudrā is the prajāā, for she is the śūnyatā in the sense of the non-production of all the dharmas,—and she is the

in the philosophical sense or the esoteric vogic sense. The authority of renowned Buddhist Ācāryas like Ārva-vimala-kīrti and others have often been quoted, who are said to have stressed the truth that Upava is bondage when unassociated with Praiña, and even Prajñā is also bondage when unassociated with Upāva: both of them again become liberation when the one is associated with the other. Their commingling through the instructions of the competent teacher, like the inseparable co-existence of the lamp and the light, will conduce to success in realising the real nature of the self and the dharmas. Whatever practices there are, they should, therefore, be preceded by a knowledge or rather the realisation of the true purport of the union of Prajñā and Upāva.' The cardinal principle of Buddha, Dharma and Sangha, says the Dakini-vajrapañjara, points to the state of citta shining in the unity of Sūnyatā and Karunā.2

Upāya has again very nicely been compared to a boat in the *Prajňopāya-viniścaya-siddhi*. There it is said that compassion is called *rāga* (affection) as it affects or causes happiness to all the beings who are distressed with infinite sufferings. This compassion is like a boat which brings all beings to the favourable shore, and it is for this reason that it is called the Upāya. The com-

non-production of beings because nothing can originate either from the self or from others or from the combination of both or from something other than their combination.

kṛpe'ty ādi/sarva-sattveṣu ātma-samatā-cittam kṛpā saiva paramopāyaḥ/samyak-sambodhi-prasādhano-pāyatvāt/sa ca yogī/yoginām pradhāna-dharmatvāt/mudrā prajñā kāsāv ity āha/śūnyatā sarva dharmāṇām anutpādaḥ/katham anutpādaḥ śūnyatā/āha/hetu viyogataḥ svataḥ parata ubhayato'nubhayataḥ sarva-bhāvānām anutpatteḥ/anutpāda-lakṣaṇā śūnyatā/saiva paramā prajñā—Hevajrapañjikā. MS. p. 41(B).

Quoted in the Kudṛṣṭi-nirghātanam of the Advaya-vajra-samgraha, p. 2; also p. 55.

 ^{*}šūnyatā-karuņā-bhinnam yatra cittam prabhāvyate |
 to hi buddhasya dharmasya sanghasyā'pi hi deśanā |
 —Quoted in the Advaya-vajra-sangraha, p. 26.

mingling of this Prajñā and Upāya like the mixture of water and milk in a state of non-duality is called the prajño-pāya.1 It is an absolutely pure state free from subjectivity and objectivity, free from the mud of reality and unreality-from the definition and the defined; it is neither duality, nor non-duality-it is quiescent-all good-all pervading, immutable and only to be intuited within; it itself is the wonderful abode of all the Buddhas-the divine Dharma-dhatu,from it emanate all the three kāyas, the three yānas, innumerable mantras, mudrā, mandala, cakra-all gods, demons, ghosts, men and everything else; it is like the wish-yielding gem (cintāmani)—a combination of both enjoyment and liberation (bhukti-muktipadam). In the chapter on the meditation on the ultimate truth (tattva-bhāvanā) of the Prajño-pāya-viniścaya-siddhi it has been said that the truth is both Prajñā and Upāva combined together; for, it is Prajñā as it is the absence of all phenomenalization (nisprapañca-svarūpatvāt), and it is compassion, because like the wish-yielding gem it does everything for the good of the beings. Supportless is Prajñā, and supportless is the great compassion; they should be united like the union of the sky with the sky. In that stage there is no thinker-no thought-nothing to be thought of: there all seeing of sights, hearing of sounds,-

¹ rañjaty aśeṣa-duḥkhaughā-nutthāms tu duḥkha-hetutaḥ |
sarva-sattvān yatas tasmāt kṛpā rāgaḥ pragīyate
upānayaty abhimatam yan naukevā'nukūlataḥ ||
sadā'nukūla-yogena saivo'pāyaḥ prakīrtitaḥ ||
ubhayor melanam yac ca salila-kṣirayor iva |
advayā-kāra-yogena prajño-pāyaḥ sa ucyate ||

⁻Prajňo-pāya-viniścaya-siddhi, p. 5.

For the first line, viz., ranjaty aseşa, etc. MM. Vidhusekhara Sastri suggests the following correct reading (with the help of the Tibetan Translation):—

τακṣaty aśeṣa-duḥkhaughād rāgeṇa duḥkha-hetutaḥ | And for yannaukevā'nukūlataḥ he suggests yallokābhimatam phalam. —Vide Modern Review, October, 1980.

muttering, laughing—enjoyment—doing of all deeds,— all become yoga for a man.

It is said in the Citta-viśuddhi-prakarana that as by the rubbing of two logs of wood fire is produced which is pure in the beginning, in the middle as well as at the end, and which shows everything by its illumination, so also by the union of Prajñā and Upāya the pure and luminous wisdom of the Yogin is produced. The absolutely pure dharma-dhātu, that is obtained by properly churning the milk of Prajñā and Upāya, is the destroyer of both pleasure and pain.

idanim vicaryate | prajňaya kevalaya kim buddhatvam syan na

(no, sic.) ced upāya-mātra-karmenā'pi |

ucyate ce'dam, na kevalam prajnā-mātrena buddhatvam nā'py upāya-mātrena, kintu yadi punah prajno-pāya-lakṣanau samatāsvabhāvau bhavatah etau dvayā-bhinna-rūpau bhavatah ekākārau

bhavatah tadā bhukti-mukti iti.-Bendall's Edition, p. 32.

It is further said that the citta (i.e., the Bodhicitta) is neither affected, i.e., pleased (rajyate) by affection (rāga) or compassion or the Upāya (rāga=karuṇā=upāya), nor is it displeased by indifference (virāga=śūnyatā, or prajñā); success is attainable only through the equalization of both rāga and virāga. It (citta) is of the nature of both Prajñā and Upāya,—and in the nature of the combination of both Prajñā and Upāya it attains the highest realization.

na rāgeņa rajyate cittam na virāgena virajyate | rāgā-rāgam samam kṛtvā mudrā-siddhis tu jāyate | cittam prajāā-svarūpena tathaivo'pāya-rūpakam | prajāo-pāya-svarūpena sambitti prajāyate | -Subhāṣita-samgraha.

It is also said in the Śrī-kāla-cakra-tantra that the Sahaja-body (Sahaja-tanu) or the dharma-kāya is neither Prajñā nor Upāya,—it is of the nature of them both.

na prajňā nā'py upāyah sahaja-tanur iyam dharma-kāyo babhūva prajňo-pāya-svarūpah khalu vigata-tamo-jňāna-vijňāna-vedāt | —Śrī-kāla-cakra-tantra, MS. (Cambridge, Add. 1864)

¹ Prajño-pāya-viniścaya-siddhi. Ch. IV, Verses 10-16. Similar discussions on the nature of Prajñā and Upāya are found in many of the Tantras. In the Subhāṣita-saṃgraha we find a discussion as to whether Buddhahood is to be attained only through Prajñā or only through Upāya. The answer is that Buddhahood is to be attained neither through Prajñā alone nor through Upāya; but if the essence of both Prajñā and Upāya becomes of the same nature—if the two become inseparably connected—become united into one, then and then only a Sādhaka becomes entitled to the highest reality which is at once enjoyment and liberation.

² Verses 98, 97.

(C) COSMOLOGICAL AND ONTOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF PRAJNA AND UPAYA

We have hinted before that the conceptions of Prajñā and Upāya acquired a cosmological and ontological significance in course of time. Prajñā is the passive principle as the dharma-kāya or the 'thatness' (tathatā) with perfect purity and perfect knowledge in her; but the whole world (i.e., the sambhoga-kāya and the nirmāṇa-kāya) is a display of the Upāya, and the world-process itself in the form of the sambhoga- and nirmāṇa-kāya is a means to lead all the sentient beings to the ultimate goal of perfect purification; this principle of passivity and the principle of activity are then the two aspects of the one absolute reality.

We have seen that the difference between śūnyatā and krpā is just like the difference between the lamp and the light and the unity of sūnyatā and krpā is also just like the unity of the lamp and the light. The import is that as light cannot exist without the lamp. so the lamp also is meaningless without light; exactly same is the case with sūnyatā and karunā; karunā which is existence cannot be there without the void or the reality; but the śūnyatā also loses her meaning without there being the world of existence,-and so there is an inseparable connection between the two like the relation of any illusory effect with eternity. 1 The world-appearance as a result of dependent origination is the grand bridegroom; had he not been there the bride śūnyatā would have been dead as it were. But, on the other hand, had this beautiful bride of śūnyatā been separated for any time from the bridegroom, he would remain eternally under bondage. So the relation between śūnyatā and karunā is like the relation of inseparable conjugal love; the love between

bhāvebhyaḥ śūnyatā nā'nyā na ca bhāvo'sti tām vinā | avinā-bhāvam iyat kṛtaka-nityayoriva || —Advaya-vaṛra-samgraha, p. 24.

them is the most natural love (sahajam prema) and so it is inseparable. 1

Goddess Vārāhī who represents Praiñā is spoken of as of the nature of knowledge, whereas god Heruka representing Upāya is spoken of as the knowable, and the Avadhūtī-mandala (the circle of perfect purification) is formed by the combination of both of this knowledge and the knowable. From all these it is evident that Prajñā is conceived as the absolute knowledge which is negative and passive, whereas Upaya is the positive and active principle. Prajñā is conceived as the female element while Upaya is conceived as the male element.

These conceptions of Prajñā and Upāya have important ontological and cosmological bearing on the four philosophical systems of Nepalese Buddhism.3 The Svābhāvika school holds that there is no immaterial ultimate truth in the form of the soul substance; matter is the primordial substance from which the world proceeds. This matter as the ultimate substance has two modes which are called pravrtti and nivrtti, action and rest, dynamic and static, concrete and abstract. Matter is eternal as a crude mass (how-

¹ Ibid., Prema-pañcaka (1-3). In the Subhāsita-samgraha also we find that the nature of Prajña is non-existence, whereas the nature of Upāya is existence; essencelessness is Prajñā and of positive nature is Upāya. So the whole truth will be the unity of both these positive and negative aspects.

atra eva'bhava-lakṣaṇā prajñā bhava-lakṣaṇa upaya iti]

tathā co'ktam, nihsvabhāva-laksanā prajnā svabhāva-laksana upāya iti tasmāt prajno-pāya-vidhānena coditah | - pp. 31-32 (Bendall's Edition).

In another place it is said that Prajñā is of the nature of essencelessness while Upaya is the cause of all existence.

nih-svabhāva-svarūpeņa prajnā-bhagas tu samsthitah | upāyo bhāva-janako bhadrapādena desitah | -Ibid., p. 70.

In the Sanskrit portion of the Dākārnava (edited by MM. H. P. Sāstrī) Upāya and Prajñā have been spoken of as existence and extinction (p. 158).

² Dākārnava (Śāstrī's Edition), p. 157.

³ The systems are: (i) Svābhāvika, (ii) Aiśvarika, (iii) Kārmika, and (iv) Yātnika.

ever infinitely attenuated in nivrtti) and so are the powers of matter. These powers are not only active but also intelligent. The proper state of existence of these powers is the state of nivrtti or rest as the abstraction from all phenomena. When these powers pass from the state of rest into their causal and transitory state of activity the phenomenal world comes into existence and it again ceases to exist when the powers repass from pravrtti to nivrtti. This nivrtti is the Prajñā and the pravrtti is said to be the Upāya. Prajñā is said to be the abstraction from all effects while Upava is the concretion of all effects or activities. In the Aiśvarika school these Prajñā and Upāya are deified as Adi-Prajñā and Adi-Buddha and the visible world is said to be created from the union of the two. According to the Prājñikas Buddha as the principle of active power first proceeds from nivrtti or Adi-Prajñā and then associates with her and from their union proceeds the actual visible world. The principle is symbolized as Prajñā being first the mother and then the wife of the Buddha. The well-known triad of Buddha, Dharma and Sangha has often been explained as Prajñā (Dharma), Upāya (Buddha) and the world (Sangha) produced by their union. 'Buddha' generally symbolizes the generative power.

Ibid., page 148.
 A sub-division of the Sväbhävika school.

¹ Illustrations of the Literature, etc.-Hodgson, p. 149.

Here it is interesting to compare with it the Sakta cosmological tradition of the Ādi-Sakti, who is the mother of Siva and again the wife of Siva in creating the world. The above principle has often been explained also by the analogy of the Yoni. It is said, 'That Yoni, from which the world was made manifest is the tri-koṇākāra-yantra. In the midst of the yantra or tri-koṇā is a bindu: from the bindu Ādi-Prajñā revealed herself by her own will. From one side of the triangle Ādi-Prajñā produced Buddha and from another side Dharma and from the third side Saṅgha.' (Quoted by Hodgson, page 126). It is also very interesting here to compare with it the well-known triangular yantra of the Hindu Tantras. Cj. also: trikoṇākāra-sambhūto dharmodaya iti smṛtaḥ—and from it originated the whole universe and all the gods and goddesses.—See Acintyādvaya-kramo-padeša. MS. (C.L.B. No. 13124) p. 118(A).

'Dharma' (or Prajñā) the productive power and their union produces Saṅgha.'

This conception of the two counterparts of the ultimate reality has its correspondence in the conceptions of the Garbha-dhātu and the Vaira-dhātu of Northern Buddhism in general. The Vajra-dhātu or the 'thunder-element' is the immutable nature-it is. in other words, the tathatā element; while the Garbhadhātu is the 'matrix element' or the phenomenal world corresponding to the tathagata-garbha. They are the two parts of the Mandala. Their union is symbolized in Nepal by the flame arising from the lotus or the moon-crescent (the flame symbolizing the male element and the lotus or the moon-crescent symbolizing the female element) or by the flame arising from the kalaśa (jar); in Tibet the union is symbolised by the Aśoka branch in the ambrosia vase, and in both Chinese and Nepalese Buddhism by Yin-yang (the female and the male). There Yoga consists in the mystic union of this immutable element, or we may say, the 'thatness' of the dharmas with the active element as the material world. It is for this reason that the theory of Yabyum (the male and the female) could find so much prominence in Northern Buddhism, particularly in Nepal and Tibet where almost all the divinities are accompanied by their female counterparts in a state of close union.

Getty interprets the Mudrā (the posture, generally of the hands) of Vairocana (the Lord Supreme of the Shingon Sect) as indicative of this mystic union. "As Dhyānī Buddha he has the Dharma-cakra-mudrā,

¹ Cj. 'From the union of the essences of Upāya and Prajāā proceeds the world which is Sangha'. (Pūjā Khanda) quoted by Hodgson, p. 127. Also cf. The Gods of Northern Buddhism, by A. Getty, p. 11.

² Here the Mandala is the circle with Buddha Mahavairocana in the centre and with numberless manifestations of his body, such as Buddhas, Bodhisattvas and others, gathered round him.

³ See The Gods of Northern Buddhism, by A. Getty.

which the Tibetans call Thabdong-shesrab, or the union of wisdom with matter."

This two-fold division of the ultimate reality is also found in the Taoism of China. There also Tao means 'The Great' (cf. Skt. Brahman) and Tei is the power, or activity or the Sakti of 'the great'. They are the negative and positive aspects of the one truth. Creation proceeds through their union—through Yinn and Yang (the female and the male).

With this conception of Prajñā and Upāya as Nivṛtti and Pravṛtti or as Ādi-prajñā and Ādi-Budhha we may compare the conception of Siva and Sakti and the aham or the 'I-ness' produced by their union (siva-śakti-mithunapiṇḍa). According to the Hindu Tantras the ultimate truth is the union of Siva and Sakti. Siva represents pure consciousness which is inactive—the static aspect of the ultimate reality; while Sakti represents the world force—the kinetic energy of the ultimate truth. Siva is Nivṛtti and Sakti is Pravṛtti and in the ultimate state they remain in a union of oneness. From the cosmological standpoint

The two hands, thus representing the union of the Spiritual with the Material, correspond to the Vajra-dhātu and Garbha-dhātu of the Maṇḍala of the two parts. The Vajra-dhātu, represented by the index finger, is the 'diamond' element corresponding to the spiritual world. The Garbha-dhātu, indicated by the five fingers, is the 'matrix' element, corresponding to the material world." Ibid., p. 30.

[&]quot;As Ādi-Buddha he has the mudrā of the Six-elements, which also indicates the same principle, and although rare in Tibet, is often found in Japan. The index finger of the left hand is clasped by the five fingers of the right. The six fingers represent the Six-elements which when united, produce the six-fold bodily and mental happiness". He further explains: "The five fingers of the right hand represent the five material elements of which man is composed: carth (little finger), water (ring finger), fire (middle finger), air (index finger) and ether (the thumb). The index finger of the left hand represents the same symbol of Ādi-Buddha; for the sixth element, the mind (manas) is a particle of his essence.

² Cf. the Hindu Täntric principle of designating the Sahasrāra (situated in the cerebrum region) to be the abode of Siva and the lowest Mūlādhāra-cakra to be the seat of Sakti in the form of an electric force, generally known as the Kūlakundalinī-śakti; this lower region where Sakti resides is generally known as the region of Pravṛtti while the higher region or the region of pure intellection

Siva is said to be the *Bindu* (of white colour to suggest the comparison with seed or semen) and Sakti is *Rakta* (of red colour to suggest the comparison with ovum) and this *Bindu* and *Rakta* unite together to produce the principle of I-ness or egoism.

But we should notice here a very important point of difference between the Buddhist conception of the two aspects of the truth and that of the Śāktas, Śaivas as well as of the Taoists. In Sakta-tantra, Saivatantra as well as in Taoism the passive subjective aspect of the ultimate reality is conceived as the male, whereas the active counterpart has always been conceived as the female, and this conception of passivity as the male and the active counterpart as the female is found in many of the systems of Indian philosophy as represented in the Tantras. The Purusa of the Sāmkhva-system is absolutely qualitiless and inactive, while all the gunas with all their active functions belong to Prakrti who is generally conceived as the In the Vedanta the Brahman is qualitiless and indeterminate, while the world-illusion is ascribed wholly to the activity of māyā, and this māyā in the popular Vedantic literature bears an air of femininity. But here, in Buddhism, we find the conception reversed; Sunyatā or Prajñā which is qualitiless and unchangeable is conceived as the female, while Karunā or Upāya with the active inspiration is conceived as the male. It may, however, be noted here that the conception of the female as the passive and the male as the active is not also quite unknown in the history of Indian thought.

In the Buddhist Tantras Prajñā and Upāya have sometimes been expressly identified with Šakti and Šiva. Šakti is the śūnyatā-perception contradicting

is called the region of Nivrtti—and the Sādhana consists in rousing the Sakti, residing in the region of Pravrtti, to unite with the Siva residing in the region of Nivrtti; the bliss proceeding from the union of Siva and Sakti is the highest religious realization.

all affirmation about things.1 Perfect bliss is obtained from the union of Siva and Sakti and this bliss is the highest non-duality; but in the ultimate reality there is neither the Siva nor the Sakti.2

In some places, however, the Bodhi-mind in its active state is spoken of as the Upaya while the goddess Nairātmā or Śūnyatā or the void-knowledge as the Prajña. In the Guhya-siddhi we find that the presiding deity over the mind is the Lord Supreme (Bhagavān) and Prajñā is the adamantine woman, and the Lord was amorously sporting with this adamantine woman in the form of Mahāsukha. When the Bodhimind in its upward march reaches the ultimate state. it merges itself wholly in Nairātmā or Sūnyatā or the Sahaja-bliss-and this merging of the Bodhi-mind in goddess Nairātmā, or perfect vacuity of the nature of intense bliss, is called the union of the Lord Mind and the Lady Vacuity. Thus Kukkurīpāda sang in a song, 'Desireless am I (the goddess Nairātmā), and the void-mind is my husband '. Tillopāda savs in his Dohās, 'Where the mind and the vacuity enter into the bliss arising out of this communion, the objects of the senses are not perceived at all'. 'The mind is the Lord and the Vacuity is the Lady; they should always be kept united in the Sahaja'. In a Dohā of Kānhu-

2 śiva-śakti-samāyogāt sat-sukham param advayam na šivo nāpi šaktiš ca ratnā-ntargata-sainsthitam

-Ucchusma-tantra quoted in the Advaya-vajra-samgraha. bhagavāniti nirdistam cittasya'dhipatih prabhuh

s citta khasama jahi samasuha palatthai! (india-visaa tahi matta) na disai

—Dohā No. 5. (Dr. P. C. Bagchi's Ed.)

manaha (bhaavā) khasama bhaavaī

(divărătti sahaje rahiai) ||

-Dohā No. 17. (Dr. P. C. Bagehi's Ed.)

¹ laksya-laksana-nirmuktam väg-udahara-variitam śiva-śakti-samāyogāt jāyate ca'dbhutam sukham || na santi tattvato bhavah śaktirupena bhavitah! śaktis tu śunyata-drstih sarva-ropa-vināśini -Nirnāda-tantra, quoted in the Advaya-vajra-samgraha (G.O.S.), p. 28.

vajro-yosit smṛtā prajñā yā sā savajrinā-tmikā | hāmu nirāsī kha-maṇa-bhatārī| Song No. 20.

pada it has been said that the Lord-mind merges himself in his wife vacuity and becomes one with her as salt dissolves in water. In some places again intense bliss (mahāsukha) as the ultimate nature and as perfect knowledge has been spoken of as the Yogini, and the Bodhi-mind as the Yogin. This Yogini is variously called as the Jñāna-mudrā (the woman of knowledge) or the Mahā-mudrā (the great woman)she is the Sahaja-damsel, with whom the Yogin remains united day and night. The Yogin often says, he would not live without her kiss and embrace-he passes his dark night (of ignorance) in union with that great woman. In the Caryapadas of the Siddhācāryas we find many songs about this transcendental love and union of the Yogin and Yogini often garbed in the metaphors of ordinary love and sex-union of man and woman.

(D) PRAJNA AND UPAYA AS MALE AND FEMALE

The fundamental theological position of the Buddhist Tantras and that of the Hindu Tantras thus become the same. As there is the belief in the Hindu Tantras that the two aspects of the reality are revealed in the world in the form of male and female in general, so there is the belief in the Buddhist Tantras that all men and women are nothing but the manifestation of Upāya and Prajñā respectively; or in other words all men and women are Upāya and Prajñā in their ultimate nature.

In the Buddhist Tantras Prajñā has generally been designated either as the goddess (bhagavatī) or as the Mudrā (which technically refers to the woman to be adopted for the Sādhanā), or the Mahā-mudrā, or the Vajra-kanyā, or as the young woman (yuvatī),

¹ jima lona vilijjai pāṇiehi tima ghariṇī lai citta | samarasa jāi takkhaṇe jai puṇu te sama ṇitta || —Dohā No. 32.

or often as the female organ. In the Hevajratantra Prajñā is called the mother (jananī), the sister (bhagini), the washer-woman (rajaki), the dancing-girl (nartakī), the daughter (duhitā), the Doma-girl (dombī), etc. These names are sometimes explained very arbitrarily. It is said that Prajñā is called janani because she gives birth to all the beings of the world; she is bhagini as she shows all the differences (vibhāga); she is rajakī because she pleases all the beings (ranjanāt); she is duhitā as she accumulates all the qualities (duhanāt); she is nartakī because of her changing character; she is dombi (a woman of a very low untouchable class) because she cannot be touched.2 In the commentary of Krsnācārya (Hevajra-pañjikā or Yoga-ratnamālā) it has been explained that Prajñā is jananī because in the form of 'great-bliss' (mahāsukha) she gives birth to the world. Again as the beginners cannot grasp her steadily, she is called nartakī. She is asparśā as she cannot be grasped by the senses.5

-Hevajra-tantra, MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 11317) p. 13(B). These lines also occur in the Sampuțikā. Cj. MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 4854) p. 4(A).

Here of course the designations of Prajña as mother, sister,

¹ In the Vajra-sarasvatī-sādhanam of the Sādhana-mālā we find Prajñā styled as the goddess (prajñām bhagavatīm, etc., p. 329). In the Kanaka-varṇa-prajñā-pāramitā-sādhanam also Prajñā-pāramitā is said to be the Bhagavatī (p. 321). In the chapter on Amanasikārā-dhāra of the Advaya-vajra-saṃgraha we find śūnyatā described as the Bhagavatī Prajñā (p. 62). In the Advaya-siddhi Prajñā is styled as the goddess (MS. C.L.B., p. 36).

² jananī bhanyate prajñā janayati yasmāt jagaj-janam |
bhaginī'ti tathā prajñā vibhāgam daršayet yataḥ ||
rajakī'ti duhitā ca nartakī ca prakathyate |
rañjanāt sarva-sattvānām rajakī'ti tathā smṛtā ||
guṇasya duhanāt prajñā duhitā ca nigadyate |
nartakī bhanyate prajñā cañcalatvāt mahākṛpā |
asparšā bhavati yasmāt tasmāt dombī prakathyate ||

^{*} mahā-sukhā-kārena visvasya jananāt jananī|

[—]MS. (Cambridge Add. No. 1699) p. 20(A).

* ādi-karmika-sattvaiḥ sthirī-kartum ašakyatvāt nartakī|
—Ibid., MS. p. 20(A).

indriyāṇām agocaratvāt | —Ibid., MS. p. 20(A).

In the Śrīguhya-samāja-tantra a beautiful girl of sixteen to be adopted in the practice is said to be the Prajñā. Saraha-pāda in one place salutes all young women, who are described as the embodiment of Prajñā—who are like the wish-yielding creepers personified—who destroy all the sufferings (kleśa) of the three worlds. In the Hevajra-tantra also the female is called the Prajñā whereas the male is called the

daughter, etc. have got some sort of metaphysical significance; but in other places the plain implication is that the mother, sister, daughter, or any woman of any caste, however low it may be, can be adopted as the Prajñā (or the woman) in the mystic practice.

mātaram bhaginīncaiva duhitām bāndhavin tathā brāhmanīm kṣatrinīncaiva vaisyām śūdrinīm tathā natīm rajakīm cu dombim ca candālinīm tathā prajnopāya-vidhānena pūjayet tattvavatsalah

-Samputikā, MS. pp. 3(A), 3(B).

See also, Prajño-pāya-viniścaya-siddhi, Ch. V, Hevajya-tantra, MS. p. 12(A), 60(B); Ekalla-vira-canda-mahā-roṣaṇa-tantra, MS. p. 8(B).

In justification of this action it is said, Prajñā is devoid of all thought-constructions and consequently she is above all the notions of differences; that being the case, for a Yogin there should not be any notion of difference among the mother, the sister, the daughter and any other girl even of the lowest caste. If there be any notion of distinction at all it is to be understood that the Yogin is not yet fully fit for the Yoga, for he has not obtained the śūnyatā-knowledge which effaces all such notions of distinction. It is therefore warned that the Prajñā should be carefully worshipped so that no notion of difference may arise at all—sevitavyā prayatnena yathā bhedo na jāyate, Samputīkā, MS. p. 3(B); Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 12(A); cf. also Hevajra-pañjikā, MS. pp. 17(B)—18(A); Cittavišuddhi-prakaraṇa, Verses 101-106. (Cf. Srī-guhya-samāja, Ch. V.)

sodaśā-bdikām samprāpya yoşitām kānti-suprabhām gandha-puṣpākulam kṛtvā tasya madhye tu kāmayet || adhiveṣṭya ca tām prajñām etc.

-Patala IV, p. 19 (G.G.S.).

Cf. also, yām kāncit svabhā-(va?) prajnā-rūpena sarvālankṛta-gātra-trivalī-taranga-bhangābhirāma. etc.

-Quoted in the Subhāsita-samgraha.

yāsām ākṛtir aprapañca-vimala-prajñāmayī sarvagā | sākṣāt kalpa-lataiva tri-bhuvane yāḥ kleśa-jvāla-cchidāḥ śrī-mad-vajra-padā-nkitā yuvatayas tābhyo namaḥ sarvataḥ ||

-Quoted in the Subhāsita-samgraha.

śūnyatā; it has also been extensively used as the synonym for the male organ. The use of the lotus as the symbol of the generating organ is rather well known, but the use of the Vajra for the male organ is rather technical. They are also technically called bola or bolaka and kakkola or kakkolaka.

(E) PRAJNĀ-UPĀYA AS LALANĀ-RASANĀ, LEFT AND RIGHT, VOWEL AND CONSONANT, ETC.

Prajñā and Upāya are also called Lalanā and Rasanā which are the names for the two nerves Iḍā and Pingalā well known in the Hindu Tāntric nervesystem. The nerve where the two nerves commingle is called the Avadhūtī which is again the middle nerve corresponding to the Suṣumnā nerve of the Hindu Tantras; and this nerve is regarded as the way to nirvāṇa. It has been said, 'Lalanā is of the nature of Prajñā, and Rasanā remains as Upāya, and Avadhūtī remains in the middle as the abode of Mahāsukha.' We may note here that in the Hindu Tantras the nerve

Cj. vajrā-bja-gharşaṇāt prajño-pāya-samāpattyā. Comm. on Dohākosa of Kānha.

Cj. also,—Sahaja-siddhi of Dombi-pāda, quoted in the Subhāṣita-saṅgraha, p. 60; Ghaṇṭā-padīya-paṅcakrama, quoted in the Subhāṣita-saṅgraha, p. 74; Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 21(B). (kha-dhātāviti padmeṣu); Dākārṇava (Ed. by Dr. N. Chaudhuri), p. 123; Kriyā-saṅgraha, MS. pp. 75(B), 76(A); Śrī-guhya-sanāja-tantra, pp. 25, 28; Comm. on Marma-kalikā-tantra, MS. (B.N. Sans. No. 83) p. 15(B).

Cf. also kamala kuliśa mājhe bhaia miāli (cf. prajūo-pāya-samatām, etc. Comm.), Caryā No. 47.

vāja ņāva pādī pāuā khāle vāhiu | Caryā No. 49.

⁽Cf. prajňā-ravinda-kuhara-hrade sad-guru-caraņo-pāyena praveśitam, Comm.)

¹ vajram volakam khyātam padmam kakkolakam matam. —Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 44(A).

³ Sādhana-mālā, p. 448.

Cj. also lalanā prajāā-svarūpeņa rasano-pāya-samsthitā | tayor madhye gatam devī amkāram visva-rūpiņī | —Heruka-tantra, MS. p. 74(B).

Idā which corresponds to the Lalanā and which is of the nature of the moon is said to be the Sakti and Pingalā, corresponding to the Rasanā and of the nature of the sun, is spoken of as the Puruṣa (the male principle). Again these Lalanā and Rasanā are said to carry seed and ovum respectively. We may also notice that Prajñā has been called vāma (left) in the Pañca-krama and Upāya has been named dakṣiṇa (right), and this Lalanā is also the nerve in the left side and Rasanā in the right side. Again Prajñā is often spoken of as the vowel or the

Cj. also lalanā prajāā-svabhāvena rasano-pāya-samsthitā | avadhūtī madhya-deśe tu grāhya-grāhaka-varjitā || —Vajra-vārāhī-kalpa-mahā-tantra, MS. p. 27(A).

Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 3(a). Heruka-tantra, MS. p. 15(A).

lalanā rasanā nādī prajno-pāyas ca melakah | -Dākārnava (Ed. MM. H. P. Sāstrī), p. 158.

¹ vāmagā yā idā nādī sukla-candra-svarūpiņī |
sakti-rūpā hi sā devī sākṣād amṛta-vigrahā ||
dakṣe tu piṇgalā nāma puruṣaḥ sūrya-vigrahaḥ |
raudrātmikā mahādevī dādimi-kesara-prabhā ||

-Sammohana-tantra quoted in the Satcakra-nirūpanam. Ed. by A. Avalon.

² Cf. also,—akṣobhya-vahā lalanā rasanā rakta-pravāhiṇī | avadhūty amita-nāthasya ādhāra-bhāvinī sadā | —Sādhana-mālā, p. 448 (G.O.S.)

aksobhya-vahā lalanā rasanā rakta-vāhini | tathā prajňā candra-vahā avadhūtī sā prakīrtitā | —Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 3(A).

teşām madhye sthitā nādī lalanā śukra-vāhinī | dakṣiṇe rasanā khyātā nādī rakta-(pra)vāhinī | —Heruka-tantra, MS. p. 14(B).

Cj. Vajra-vārāhī-kalpa-mahā-tantra, MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 11285) p. 26(B). This MS., preserved in the R.A.S.B., seems to be substantially the same as the Śrī-Dākārnave Mahāyoginī-tantrarāja published with the Apabhramsa Dohās along with the Caryāpadas by MM. H. P. Šāstrī; but there are important additions and alterations.

We should note one important confusion here. Lalanā is said to be Prajāā but it is said to carry seed, whereas Rasanā which is said to be Upāya is said to carry ovum; but the statement ought to have been reversed to be consistent with the analogy of the Tāntric Buddhists.

3 vāma-saminām punaścaiva, etc., MS. p. 20(B).

4 divā purusa-samiñā ca svarā-kāraśca daksinah, MS. p. 21(A).

vowel 'a', or the series of letters beginning with 'a' (āli); and Upāya, in contrast, is spoken of as representing the consonants, or the letter 'ka' or the series beginning with the letter 'ka' (kāli). In the chapter on Amanasikāra of the Advaya-vaira-samgraha we find that the letter 'a' in the beginning of the word 'a-manasikāra' implies the non-organization of all that is imagined to be produced.1 In justification of this interpretation it is cited from the Mantra-patala (second chapter of the first kalpa) of the Hevairatantra that as the letter 'a' is without beginning or origination, so also are all the dharmas-so the uncreate nature of the dharmas as the śūnyatā is represented by 'a': Prajñā who is śūnyatā is, therefore, 'a'. About the nature of 'a' it has been said in the Nāmasangiti that 'a' is the first of all the letters, it is full of deep significance, it is absolutely immutable-it is long -uncreate and free from all vocal modulations. 'A' is said to be the first and the most important of all the letters and all other letters are said to have evolved from this first letter 'a'. In the Ekalla-vīra-candamahārosana-tantra we find that the vowel 'a' means the non-artificial innate nature, and, therefore, 'a' represents Prajñā and 'va' represents the Upāva. In the Hindu texts we often find that 'a' represents Brahmā or the creator of the universe. In the Gitā

¹ P. 61 (G.O.S.).

² akārah sarva-varņāgro mahā-rthaḥ paramā-kṣaraḥ | mahā-prāņo hy anutpādo vāg-udāhāra-varjitah |

[—]Quoted in the Advaya-vajra-samgraha, p. 62.

Cj. also,—akāro mukham sarva-dharmānām ādyanutpannatvāt |
—Krsna-yāmāri-tantra quoted in the Catalogue of Sans.

Buddhist MSS., R.A.S.B., Vol. 1, p. 149.

Again, ādi-svara-svabhāvā sā hīti buddhaiḥ prakalpitā |

Again, ādi-svara-svabhāvā sā hīti buddhaiḥ prakalpitā |
saiva bhagavatī prajāā utpanna-krama-yogataḥ |
--Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 49(A).

akāreņā'kṛtrimam sahaja-svabhāvam uktam akārenocyate prajñā vakāreņa hy upāyakam | prajño-pāyaka-yogena lakāra-sukha-lakṣanā |

[—]MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 9089) p. 23(B).

* akāre liyate brahmā ukāre liyate harih |
makāre liyate rudrah pranave hi parah smrtah ||

Lord Kṛṣṇa says that among the letters he is 'a'. So the fact of the letter 'a' being the representative of Sūnyatā is significant. Often it is seen that Prajñā or Sūnyatā is represented not merely by 'a' but by the vowels in general,' and is indicated by the general name āli (i.e., the vowel series beginning with 'a').2 In contrast with āli, representing Prajñā, kāli or the consonantal series represents Upāya. This Prajñā and Upāya or āli and kāli are then associated with the moon and the sun, or the night and the day respectively. In the Aitareya-Āranyaka it has been said that the night is obtained through the consonants and the day through the vowels. ' Here in the Buddhist texts there is an inversion of the notion. But this in general may explain the association of ali with the moon or the night and of kāli with the sun or the day. Lalanā and Rasanā have also been associated with the moon and the sun, and they are said to be the two nerves flowing from the left and right of the nasal cavity.5

1 Cf. Sādhana-mālā, pp. 476, 557.

² prajñā'li kāly upāyeti.—Hevajra-tantra, MS., p. 20(A). Also kakāra ādir yasyā'sau kādiḥ kāliḥ, akāraḥ ādir yasyā'sau ādir āliḥ|

-Marma-kalikā-tantra, MS. (B.N. Sans. No. 83), pp. 9(A) and 9(B).

āli akārā-di-sodasa-svarān tathā tenaiva krameņa kāli kakārā-

di-hakāra-paryantam | -MS., p. 53(A). Again, akārā-dir ālih kakārā-dih kālih.-Hevajra-panjikā, MS., p. 6(A).

* sthitā-liś candra-rūpeņa kāli-rūpeņa bhāskaraḥ | candra-sūrya-dvayor-mela gauryādyās te prakīrtitāḥ || prajñā-li kāly upāye'ti candrā-rkasya prabhedanāt | —Hevajra-tantra, MS., p. 20(A).

candra-sūryo-parāgeşu prajnā-vajra-prayogatah | vilīne advaye jūāne buddhatvam ihu-janmani |

-Quoted in the Subhasita-samgraha, p. 70.

vyanjanaireva ratrir apnuvanti svarair ahani

—Aitareya-Āranyaka (II 2, 4). Quoted by Dr. P. C. Bagchi in his Studies in the Tantras, p. 78.

* Cf. lalanā rasanā ravi-sasi tudia venna vi pāse | —Dohākosa of Kānhu-pāda, verse No. 5.

Cj. also the comm. lalanā-śabdenā'liḥ prajñā-candro vidhīyate | tasya vāma-nāsāpuṭa-svabhāvas tena prāṇa-pravāhiṇī lalanā sthitā | rasanā-śabdena kāli-rūpā etc.

-MS., B.N. Sans. No. 47, p. 40(B).

Again Prajñā has been said to be the syllable 'e' and Upāya the syllable 'va'. In the Sādhanamālā we find that Prajñā should be meditated on as the syllable 'e'. It is said in the Samputikā, "Prajñā is said to be 'e' while Upāya is the syllable 'va'; and this 'e' shines only when it is aborned with 'va'." In the Hevajra-tantra and in many other Tantras it is said, "That divine 'e' which is adorned in the middle with the vajra is the abode of all bliss or happiness-it is the abode of all the gems of the Buddhas; all joy, qualified by the moments, is produced there; when one is established in this e-vam-kāra one realizes bliss through the knowledge of the moments."3 In the Dohākosa of Kānhu-pāda it has been said, 'He who has understood e-vam-kāra has understood everything completely.' This 'e' has again been called the mother and the 'va' the father and the bindu is produced by their union. Again, 'e' is the Prajñā and 'va' is the Lord in sex-intercourse, and the bindu is the immutable knowledge proceeding from their union. This 'e' and 'vam' have also been associated with the moon and the sun. But in explaining the well-known introductory line of the Sangiti literature,

¹ sva-dhātau cintayet dhīmān prajāām ekāra-rūpinīm | - P. 444.

² ekāreņa smṛtā prajñā vankāras cā'py upāyakam | vankāra-bhusitas câ'sāv ekārah sobhate dhruvam | adho-rddhva-samāpattyā prajño-pāya-svabhāvatah ||

[—]MS., p. 10(A).

**ekārā-kṛti yad divyam madhye vaṇkāra-bhūṣitam|

**ālayam sarva-saukhyānām buddha-ratna-karaṇḍakam ||

**ānandās tatra jāyante kṣaṇa-bhedena-bheditah|

kṣaṇa-jñānāt sukha-jñānam evaṅkāre pratisthitam ||

—Hevajra-tantra, MS., pp. 38(B), 39(A).

⁴ evamkāra je bujjhia te bujjhia saala ašeṣa | — Dohā 21.
Cf. the comm. evamkāra iti śūnyatā-karuņā-bhinna-rūpiņī mahā-mudrā ittham evamkāram |

s ekāras tu bhave(t) mātā vakāras tu pitā smṛtaḥ |
bindus tatra bhaved yogah sa yogah paramā-kṣaraḥ ||
ekāras tu bhavet prajñā vakārah suratā-dhipaḥ |
bindus cā'nāhatam jñānam taj-jātāny aksarāni ca ||
—Devendra-paripṛcchā-tantra, collected in the Subhāṣitasamgraha. (Bendall's Edition), p. 76.

viz., evam mayā śrutam, etc., the Samputikā explains evain rather in a different way. It is said there that by 'e' is to be understood the earth which is Karmamudrā, also known as Locanā; she is of the nature of great compassion and great expedience-she is of the form of the whole universe and is known to the whole universe; she resides in the Nirmana-cakra in the lotus in the nave. Vain implies water representing the Dharma-mudrā or the goddess Māmakī; she is of the nature of universal love and concentration and resides in the Dharma-cakra in the heart in a lotus of eight petals. We find this interpretation also in the Hevaira-pañiikā of Krsnācārya.' But in offering another alternative meaning of the line evain maya śrutam, etc., the Hevajra-panjika says that by 'e' is meant the female organ while by 'va' is meant the

¹ Again ma (of mayā) is fire, Mahā-mudrā, Pāṇḍarā is the Sambhoga-cakra in the throat; yā means air, Samaya-mudrā, goddess Karmakulā in the Mahāsukha-cakra, etc.

Cj. ekāram pṛthivī jneyā karma-mudrā tu locanā |
mahā-kṛpā mahopāyā viśva-rūpā viśva-gocarā |
sthitā nirmāṇa-cakre vai nābhau viśva-paṅkaje ||
vam-kāram tu jalam jneyam dharma-mudrā tu māmakī |
maitrī-praṇidhi-rūpā tu devī vajra-mukhe sthitā |
dharma-cakre tu hṛdaye aṣṭa-dalāmbuje ||
ma-kāram vahnir uc liṣṭo mahāmudrā tu pāṇḍarā |
muditā-bala-yogena devī padma-kulodbhavā |
sthitā sambhoga-cakre tu kaṇṭhe dvy-aṣṭa-dalā-mbuje ||
yā-kāram vāyu-rūpastu sarva-kleśa-prabhaṇjakaḥ |
mahā-samaya-mudrā vai devī karma-kulā mukhyā |
upekṣā jñāna-yogena tārā saṃsāra-tāriṇī ||
—Samputikā, MS., p. 10(A).

² ekāraḥ pṛthivī jñeyā karma-mudrā tu locanā |
catuḥṣaṣṭi-dale nābhau sthitā nirmāṇa-cakrake |
vam-kārastu jalam jñeyam dharma-mudrā tu māmakī |
samsthitā tu dharma-cakre śuddha-divyā-ṣṭa-dalā-mbuje ||
śrutam sahajam ityuktam dvidhā-bhedena bheditam |
samvṛtam devatā-kāram utpatti-krama-pakṣataḥ |
vivṛti sva-svarūpan tu niṣpanna-krama-pakṣataḥ |
satya-dvayam samāṣritya buddhānām dharma-deśanā ||
—Hevajra-tantra; See Hevajra-pañjikā, MS., p. 2(B).

But cf. also:—
ekāreņa locanā devi vamkāreņa māmakī smrtā!
makāreņa pāṇḍarā ca yākāreņa ca taruņī !!
—Hevajra-tantra, MS., p. 4(A).

male organ; by mayā is meant the sex-activity and by śrutam is implied the double nature of the sādhana (viz., samvṛta and vivṛta). The commentator further explains that the male is of the nature of the seed, while the pleasure is the female—they represent the Dharma-kāya and Sambhoga-kāya and both of them are combined in the nature of the Lord (vajra-dhara). Thus 'e' and 'va' are the two aspects of the Lord; they are also called samvṛta and vivṛta which again correspond to the śūnyatā and karuṇā or Prajñā and Upāya.

It is needless to say that many of these derivations and interpretations are merely arbitrary and they are introduced to demonstrate some purely sectarian view. It is for this reason that in the Marmakalikā-tantra and in the Hevajra-pañjikā all the alternative interpretations are called 'sectarian interpretations' (sampradāya-vyākhyā). Thus the verse—

caṇḍālī jvalitā nābhau dahati pañca-tathāgatān dahati ca locanādīnām dagdhe hum sravate śaśī||² has got as many as five interpretations. In the first interpretation āli has been explained as the wind blowing through the left nasal passage and kāli as the wind blowing through the right. Again caṇḍā means Prajñā as she is very terrible (caṇḍā) in destroying all sorts of afflictions; and āli here means Vajra-sattva.

¹ ekāram bhagam ityuktam vamkāram kuliśam smṛtam | mayeti cālanam proktam śrutam yat tad dvidhāmatam || tathā ca vaksyati |

śukrā-kāro bhaved bhagavān tat-sukhamkāminī smṛtam | dharma-sambhoga-rūpatvam vajra-dharasya lakṣaṇam | tathā ca

samvṛtam kumkuma-sankāśam vivṛtam sukha-rūpiṇam | ity anena hi vākyena śūnyatā-karuṇā-svabhāvam prajño-pāyasvabhāvam dharma-sambhoga-kāya-svabhāvam |

² —Hevajra-tantra, MS., p. 4(B). MS., p. 2(A).

³ ālir vāma-nāsā-puṭa-prabhavo vāyuḥ/ tadaparaḥ kāliḥ| —Hevajra-pañjikā, MS., p. 9(B).

^{*} candā prajnā klešo-pakleša-niskarantane (?) canda-svabhāvatvāt ālir vajra-sattvah |

⁻Ibid., MS., p. 9(B).

Again candā is Prajnā who is am: and āli is Vairasattva who is kram. 1 Again candā is Prajñā which is the left nerve, while āli is Upāva or the right nerve. Again candā is Prajñā which is discriminative knowledge about the transcendental nature of origination and the originated ; while ali is the mind full of universal compassion. Here in these interpretations it is very easy to notice that āli has been explained as Upāva which contradicts the interpretation of all the Tantras including the Hevajra-tantra (of which the Hevaira-pañiikā is the commentary); āli has also been said to be kram (while canda is am), which also is absurd and self-contradictory.

(iii) Advaya (non-duality) and Yuganaddha (Principle of Union)

A study of the above speculations on the nature of the Bodhicitta will bring it home to us that the central point of all the Sādhanā of the Tantric Buddhists was a principle of union. The synthesis or rather the unification of all duality in an absolute unity is the real principle of union, which has been termed as Yuganaddha. This principle of Yuganaddha is clearly explained in the fifth chapter (Yuganaddha-krama) of the Pañca-krama. There it is said that when a state of unity is reached through the purging of the two notions of the creative process (samsāra) and absolute cessation (nirvrtti), it is called Yuganaddha. When the transcendental nature of both phenomenal (samkleśa) and the absolutely purified (vyavadāna) realities is realized and the two become unified into one, it is called the Yuganaddha. Again, when the Yogin is

¹ candā prainā amkārah/ ālir vaira-sattvah kram-kārah -Ibid., MS., p. 10(A).

² candā prajāā vāmā nādī / āli-rūpa upāyo daksina-nādī |

[—]Ibid., MS., p. 10(A).

* candā prajāā utpatty-utpanna-krama-sambandhinām vicārah ālir mahā-karunāmaya-cittam | -Ibid., MS., p. 10(B).

able to synthesize the thought-constructions of all corporeal existence with the notion of the formlessness, he can be said to have known the principle of Yuganaddha. Thus the text goes on explaining that the real principle of Yuganaddha is the absence of the notion of duality as the perceivable (grahya) and the perceiver (grāhaka) and their perfect synthesis in an unity; it is the absence of the notions of eternity and limitation and is their synthesis in an unity,-the unity of Prajñā and Karuṇā,—the state of all-void (sarvasūnyatā) through the union of Prajñā and Upāva. Where there is no notion of extinction with some residual substratum (sopādhi-śesah) or extinction without any residuum (anupādhi-śesah), i.e., no notion of the nonessentialness of the dharmas (dharma-nairātmya) or of the self (pudgala-nairātmya)—that is what is called the Yuganaddha;-for, the very nature of Yuganaddha involves its freedom from all kinds of thoughtconstructions. To realize through constant practice the truth of both svādhisthāna (which is the third śūnuatā as self-establishment or the universalization of the self) and the resplendent (prabhāsvara, which is the fourth or the final stage as sarva-śūnua) and then to unite them—this is Yuganaddha. To enter into the final abode of 'thatness' in body, word and mind and thence again to rise up and turn to the world of miseries-that is what is called Yuganaddha. To know the nature of samvṛti (the provisional truth) and the paramartha (the ultimate truth) and then to unite them together is real Yuganaddha. Where the mind does neither lose itself in the absolute 'thatness', nor does it rise up in the world (of activity)-that immutable state of the Yogin is called the state of Yuganaddha. Here there is neither affirmation nor denial, neither existence nor non-existence, neither non-remembering (asmrti = non-subjectivity through the absence of the vāsanās) nor remembering (smrti), neither affection (raga) nor non-affection (araga),

neither the cause nor the effect, neither the production (utpatti) nor the produced (utpanna), neither purity nor impurity, neither anything with form, nor anything without form; it is but a synthesis of all these dualities -that is what is meant by the principle of Yuganaddha. A Yogin thus placed in Yuganaddha is called the omniscient, the seer of the truth, the support of the universe;-he has escaped the snare of illusion by attaining perfect enlightenment,-he has crossed the sea of birth and death,-be has attained non-dual knowledge and eternal tranquillity. This in fact is perfect enlightenment (buddhatva),-this is what is meant by becoming a Vaira-sattva,—this is the way to attain all power and wealth. This stage is called the absorption in the Vairopama (or thunder-like) meditation,—the nispanna krama or the absolute state, or the absorption in the Mayopama (illusion-like) meditation, or it is called the non-dual truth (advaua-tattva). Words like 'uncreate', 'non-dual", etc., all refer to this. In this way the Buddhas, whose number is innumerable like the sand on the bank of the Ganges. attained perfection, a stage neither real nor unreal. This principle of Yuganaddha should be meditated as well as practised, and in such a stage, the mind being absolutely free from the notion of all sorts of duality, there remains no distinction between the self and the enemy, no distinction of caste or relation; there is no distinction in his mind between cloth and skin, gem and husk,-the scent of camphor or any other bad scent, praise and calumny, day and night, dream and perception, the ruined or the surviving, pleasure and pain, evil and good, hell and heaven, merit and demerit.1

samsāra-nirvītisceti kalpanā-dvaya-varjanāt |
ekī-bhāvo bhavet yatra yuganaddham tad ucyate ||
samklešam vyavadānanca jnātvā tu paramārthatah |
ekī-bhāvam tu yo vetti sa vetti yuganaddhakam |
sākāra-bhāva-samkalpam nirākāratva-kalpanām |
ekī-kītya caret yogī sa vetti yuganaddhakam ||

In the Yugananddha-prakāśa of the Advaya-vajrasamgraha it has been said about the principle of union that the nature of the union of śūnyatā and karunā is incomprehensible; void and manifestation always remain in union by nature. In the Prema-pañcaka of the Advaya-vajra-samgraha, śūnyatā has been spoken of as the wife and the manifestation of śūnuatā as the husband,-and the relation between them is that of conjugal love which is very natural (sahajam prema); and so inseparable are they in their deep love that śūnyatā without the husband of manifestation would have been dead and the husband of manifestation without śūnyatā would have always suffered bondage. In the Sādhana-mālā it is said that the one body of the ultimate nature as the unity of both śūnyatā and karunā is called the neuter or often as the Yuganaddha. This Yuganaddha is called Advaya, it is the Bodhicitta , it is the Dharma-kāva.

The conception of maithuna (conjugal intercourse) or $k\bar{a}ma-kal\bar{a}$ (as it is called in the $K\bar{a}ma-kal\bar{a}-vil\bar{a}sa$) of the Saiva or Sākta Tantras refers to the same principle. In the $K\bar{a}ma-kal\bar{a}-vil\bar{a}sa$ we find the principle

grāhyañ ca grāhakañ caiva dvidhā-buddhir na vidyate | abhinnatā bhavet yatra tadāha yuganaddhakam || šāšvate cheda-buddhistu yaḥ prahāya pravartate | yuganaddha-kramā-khyam vai tattvam vetti sa paṇḍitaḥ || prajñā-karuṇayor aikyam jñā(nam) yatra pravartate | yuganaddha iti khyātaḥ kramo'yam buddha-gocaraḥ || prajño-pāya-samāpattyau jñātvā sarvam samāsataḥ | yatra sthito mahāyogī tad bhavet yuganaddhakam || yatra sthito mahayogī tad bhavet yuganaddhakam || ity evam kalpanā nā'sti tat taddhi yuganaddhakam || yatra pudgala-nairātmya(m) dharma-naitrātmyam ity api | kalpanayā viviktatvam yuganaddhasya lakṣaṇam || jñātvā karmeṇa tattvajñah svādhisthāna-prabhāsvaram | tayor eva samājam yad yuganaddha-kramo hy ayam || etc.

¹ ekah svābhāvikah kāyah śūnyatā-karunā-dvayah | napumsakam iti khyāto yuganaddha iti kvacit || Sādhana-mālā, Vol. II, pp. 5, 505.

² etad advayam ity uktam bodhicittam idam param | Ibid., p. 17.

^{*} Sekoddeśa-tikā (G.O.S.) p. 57.

very clearly explained. Siva or Mahesa is pure illumination (prakāśa-mātra-tanu) or the abstract self-shining thought with all the principles of activity contracted within him (antarlina-vimarsah); Sakti is the principle of activity or the inherent activity of thought (vimarśa or kriyā-śakti) and she contains the seed of the future worlds (bhāvi-carā-cara-bijam). Siva, however, realizes himself through the Sakti, and therefore it is said that Siva is the form or beauty which is to be reflected in the clear-looking glass of vimarsa. 1 The philosophical implication seems to be that pure abstract thought cannot realize its own nature unless it comes back to itself through its own activity, and when it thus turns back to itself through vimarsa it becomes the 'Egohood'. Thus at first there is pure thought-illumination (prakāśa), then the activity (vimarśa) and by their union is produced ahamkāra or the 'Egohood'. This principle of 'Egohood' is called the 'mass produced through the union of Siva and Sakti' (śiva-śakti-mithuna-pinda). We have already indicated that this Siva is thought of as the white matter (sita-bindu) and the Sakti as the red-matter (sona-bindu), and if we are to expand the analogy, it comes to this, that just as all production is through the commingling of the seed and the ovum, through the union of the male and the female, so this 'Egohood' is the son, as it were, produced through the union of the Siva and Sakti. This Siva is the Kama (he who is desirable) and the Sakti is the Kalā ' and their union is the Kāma-kalā.

The principle of union is often illustrated in the Buddhist Pantheon by the representation of many of the gods embracing their consorts or female counter-

Kāma-kalā-vilāsa, Verse 2.

Kashmira Series of Texts and Studies, No. XII.

¹ śiva-rūpa-vimarśa-nirmalā-darśah ||

² Ibid., Verse 5.

³ Kāma-kalā-vilāsa, Comm. on Verse 7.

⁴ Ibid., Comm. on Verse 7.

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parts. The Lord Supreme as the Vajra-sattva or the Vajra-dhara is often represented as embracing his consort variously called as the Vajra-dhātvīśvarī or Vajravārāhī or Prajāā or Prajāā-pāramitā or Nairātmā. Lord Heruka in the Heruka-tantra is represented as filled with erotic emotion (śrngāra-rasa-samanvitam) and deeply embracing his consort Vaira-vairocani in great joy of compassion (karunā-mahotsava). In the Srī-cakra-sambhāra-tantra the Lord is depicted as embracing Vaira-vārāhī who clings to him (in sexual union) and who is red in colour (red colour of love). To illustrate the principle of union they are depicted as in sexual union touching at all points of contact.2 In the Sādhana-mālā we find that Heruka, as embraced by his Praiña, represents the knowledge of the non-dual union. Lord Adi-Buddha embraced by his Prajñā is said to be the non-dual (advaya) truth. In many of the Sadhanas we find that the god to be worshipped is to be meditated on as in union with or deeply embraced by his female consort and as enjoying great bliss. We have seen that the five Tathagatas or the Dhvani Buddhas, viz., Vairocana, Aksobhva, Amitābha, Ratnasambhava and Amogha-siddhi, have their female consorts Vajradhātvīśvarī, Locanā, Māmakī, Pāndarā and Ārvatārā, and these Dhvānī Buddhas or Tathāgatas are generally described with their own consorts or Saktis. It is interesting to note that many of the Buddhist gods of Nepal and Tibet are depicted in uab-uum or in union. Often the god holds the yum (the female) on his knee in the archaic manner of Siva holding Parvatī or Umā. Thus Avalokiteśvara is often depicted as holding his Sakti on the knee.

Most of the Buddhist Tantras are Sangīti in type

2 Śrī-cakra-sambhāra-tantra, pp. 27, 29.

¹ Heruka-tantra, MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 11279) p. 81.

advaya-yoga-jñānam tu prajñā-lingita-herukam | Vol. II (G.O.S.), p. 508.

⁴ Ibid., p. 505.

^a Ibid., pp. 491, 500, 502, 529, 582, 587, 589, etc.

and the Lord Supreme as the Bhagavan Buddha or the Lord Vajra-sattva or Vajra-dhara is depicted as preaching these principles of Sādhanā in an assembly of the Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, Tathagatas and others; but sometimes we see that the Lord Supreme is not preaching in the assembly, but is depicted as explaining the principles of esoteric practices by way of answering the questions of goddess Nairātmā or Vajra-vārāhī or simply Vārāhī, who, out of compassion for the suffering beings, puts all sorts of questions as to the secrets of the practices through which all beings may attain liberation. In the Hevajra-tantra we see that goddess Nairātmā, deeply moved by the miseries of the beings, is entreating the Lord to explain all the secrets through which the suffering world may be delivered. The Lord is moved by her request; he kisses her and caresses and coaxes her in deep embrace and explains to her al! the secrets of Yoga through which all beings may be liberated. In one place, however, goddess Nairātmā asks the Lord to explain what is meant by their Cakra. The Lord replies that it is a place with four corners and four doors decked with Vajra-threads; within it remains the Lord with the Lady in deep passion of the nature of Sahaja-bliss; and from their union proceed all the goddesses in all the quarters. The Vajravārāhī-kalpa-mahā-tantra, the Ekalla-vīra-candamahā-roṣaṇa-tantra', etc., are written entirely as dialogues between the Lord and the Lady in exactly the

prechati tatra sā devi vajra-pūjā-prayogatah tatksanam kidršo deva kathayasva mahāprabho | Ibid., MS. p. 61(A).

¹ Cf. kapāla-mālinam vīram nairātmā-slista-kandharam pañca-mudrā-dharam devam nairātmā prechati svayam | asmac cakram tvayā kathitam pañca-daśa-parivāritam tad idam mandalam kidrk prak na jnatam maya prabho cumbayitvā tu nairātmām ksiptvā vajram kakkolake mardayitvā stanam devo mandalam samprakāšate Hevaira-tantra, MS. p. 55(B).

Cf. also pp. 61(B), 62(A), 69(A), 69(B), etc.

² Ibid., MS. pp. 55(B)-56(A). ³ R.A.S.B., MS. No. 11285. ⁴ R.A.S.B., MS. No. 9089.

same manner as described above. In the Ekalla-viracanda-mahā-rosana-tantra the Lord says that in the form of the unity of the four kinds of bliss, free from all notions of existence and non-existence—as the principle of non-phenomenalism, he resides in all men; while the Lady replies that she also, in the form of the unity of śūnyatā and karunā, as the 'non-construct' bliss, resides in all women. ' It may be noted that the Hindu Tantras are also generally introduced by way . of a dialogue between Lord Siva and his Sakti Pārvatī; there also, Parvati (who is the mother of the world as Prajñā also is), out of deep compassion for the beings, asks the Lord about the path through which the beings may be liberated, and in way of replying to the questions of Parvati Lord Siva explains to her all the secrets of Yoga. It is indeed very hazardous to postulate on the basis of this similarity of form in the Buddhist and the Hindu Tantras any theory concerning the priority of the one to the other; it is, nevertheless, to be admitted that the resemblance is striking. and in later time with the gradual decay of Buddhism and the revival of Hinduism the Buddhist Lord Supreme with his female counter-part could very easily conceal himself behind the Hindu god Siva with his Sakti Pārvatī or Gaurī or Durgā. This confusion between the two pairs of the Hindu and Buddhist divinities is palpable in the Hindu-Buddhist vernacular literature of India.

bhāvā-bhāva-vinirmuktas catur-ānandaika-tatparah |
niṣprapañca-svarūpo'ham sarva-samkalpa-varjitah ||
mām na jānāti ye mūḍhāḥ sarva-puni-vapuṣi sthitam |
teṣām aham hitā-rthāya pañcā-kāreṇa samsthitaḥ ||
athā bhagavatī dveṣa-vajrī samādhim āpadye'dam udājahāra,—
śūnyatā-karuṇā-bhinnā divya-kāma-sukha-sthitā |
sarva-kalpa-vihīnā'ham niṣprapañcā nirākulā ||
mām na jānanti ye nāryaḥ sarva-strī-deha-samsthitām |
tāsām aham hitā-rthāya pañcā-kāreṇa samsthitām |
atha bhagavān kṛṣṇācano (?) gāḍhena bhagavatī-dveṣavajrīm
cumbayitvā samālingya cā'mantrayate sma |
devī devī mahā-ramyam rahasyam cā'ti-durlabham | etc.
MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 9089) pp. 1(B)-2(A).

The Buddhist Tantric literature of the Sangiti class (i.e., where Lord Buddha himself is depicted as the preacher of the truth contained in the body of the book) invariably begins with the sentence-evain mayā śrutam ekasmin samaye bhagavān sarva-tathāgata-kāya-vāk-citta-hrdaya-vaira-yosit-bhagesu vijahāra. The general meaning of the sentence is-'It is heard by me that once upon a time, the Lord sported in the heart of super-human knowledge arising out of the body, speech and mind of all the Tathagatas'. But the line has been explained in various ways in various Tantras and their commentaries. Of course, as pointed out before, in many cases the interpretation is absolutely sectarian and as such purely arbitrary. The word bhaga may be (and has often been) explained to mean the six super-human qualities, viz., all sovereignty (aiśvarya), energy (vīrya), fame (yaśas), beauty (śrī), knowledge (jñāna) and detachment (vairagya); and taking this meaning the above line may be explained in the following way: the lord shone in bliss in the transcendental qualities belonging to the body, speech and mind of the Tathagatas. But the Guhya-siddhi of Padmavaira savs-'There is renowned Prajña who is divine and who sanctions all fulfilment: that which remains in her is called the syllable bhaga, -that is the pure truth; and I have worshipped it from the standpoint of the absolute." Here it seems that the truth (tattva) that remains in union with Prajñā is the Lord himself. Thus the aphorism (evam mayā, etc.) means that the Lord remains in union with Prajñā in the form of the tattva. Again it is said, that the Lord of mind is the bhagavan and Prajña is the Vaira-yosit (the adamantine woman), and there (in the Vajra-yosit) sported the Lord in the form of great

¹ sthitā siddhi-pradā divyā nāmnā prajūe'ti viśrutā |
tasyām vyavasthitam yat tad bhagam ity akṣara-dvayam |
tan mayā śuddha-tattvā-khyam sevitam paramārthataḥ ||
Guhya-siddhi. MS. p. 9.

bliss. Again it is said, that all non-constructive and universal knowledge, condensed into a mass, is the void-element in the form of the bhaga. This void-element or śūnyatā is the Prajñā; and the Prajñā is depicted as the eternal and infinite object of joy of the Lord of elements (Bhūta-nātha); she is pure in the beginning, in the middle and in the end,—and she comes from Vajra-knowledge and remains as Samvṛtti (provisional or phenomenal); she is known also as karma-mudrā; and moved by her kindness towards the beings she condescends to take human forms (as women).

In spite of the above we may say that whatever might have been the original meaning of the epithet vajra-yoṣit-bhaga, it began to be taken in later times in its sense as the female organ; and the Lord (representing Lord Buddha), instead of being conceived as preaching in the assembly of the adept, began to be conceived as dallying with Prajñā or his female counterpart and this will be confirmed by the manner in which the dialogues of the Dākārṇava (ed. by MM. H. P. Sāstrī) are introduced.

vijahāra tatah śrīmān śrī-mahāsukha-vajrinah || Ibid., p. 17.

¹ bhagavān iti nirdistam cittasyā'dhipatih prabhuh| vajra-yosit smṛtā prajñā yā sā savajriṇā-tmakā ||

nirvikalpaka-sarvajña-jñānam piņḍīkṛtam tu yat sarva(m) yat bhagam ākāra-rūpeņa tat kha-dhātum iti smṛtam Ibid., p. 17.

yā sā śrī-bhūta-nāthasya mud(r)ā parama-śāśvatī | nāmnā prajñe'ti vikhyātā ādi-madhyā-nta-nirmalā | sthitā samvṛtti-rūpeṇa tu vajra-jñāna-sambhavā | karma-mudre'ti vikhyātā sattvā-nugraha-hetunā | mānuṣī tanum āśritya sarva-sattva-hitaiṣinī | Ibid., p. 14.

⁴ The text begins with the line—evam mayā śrutam ekasmin samaye bhagavān mahā-vīrc-śvara(h) sarva-tathāgata-vīra-kāya-vāk-citta-yoginī-bhagesu kriditavān. Then the Mahāvīreśvara begins to narrate his experiences in the mahāsukha-samādhi; but the goddess Vārāhī interferes and puts questions to the Lord, and the Lord goes on replying to her questions and removing all her doubts. Dākārnava (Sāstrī), p. 135.

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(iv) Rāga (Affection) and Mahārāga (Great Affection).

Another factor to be noticed in esoteric Buddhism is the conception of raga which ordinarily means deep attachment. In the Samputikā it has been said,-'Neither attachment (rāga) nor detachment (virāga), nor any intermediate stage is perceived; here the nature of raga is attachment and the nature of viraga is arrest (nirodha)'. The word raga is also used for karunā. In the Prajnopāya-viniścaya-siddhi it is said that krpā or compassion is called rāga because it makes happy (ranjati) or saves (raksati) all the beings who are deeply immersed in the sea of sorrow. In the Jvālāvali-vajramālā-tantra we find the word rāga used for Upāya. But gradually the word began to acquire the meaning of intense and transcendental bliss arising out of the sexo-yogic practice, which is the means or the expedient (upāya) for attaining the Bodhicitta or the Sahaja which is of the nature of great bliss (mahāsukha). In the Kriyā-samgraha it is said that the nectar-like Bodhicitta is to be meditated on as melt-

Again:-

samšayam sarvam atraiva kim rahasyā-di-vākyakam | kathayantu mama svāmī sattvānām upakārakam || tustāmy aham mahādevī sattvo-pakāra-hetukam | kathayāmi samāsena šṛnvekāgrata-cetasā || Ibid., p. 137.

na rāgo na virāgas ca madhyamā no palabhyate tatra rāga āsakti-lakṣaņo virāgo nirodham matam Sampuṭikā, MS. p. 10(B).
See also Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 22(B).

Cf. also, -Vajra-dāka-tantra quoted in the Catalogue of Sans. Buddhist MSS., R.A.S.B., Vol. I, p. 100.

Cj. also,—na rāgo na virāgas ca madhyamā no'palabhyate |
trayāṇām varjanād eva sahajaḥ sambodhir ucyate |
Buddha-kapāla-tantra-ṭīkā of Abhayakara Gupta,
MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 3827) p. 38.

² yuganaddha-maharagah sthito yatra saprajñakah | MS. p. 19(B).

ing through mahārāga. In the Hevajra-tantra also we find that the Lord Supreme and his Sakti are in deep union in the nature of Sahaja-bliss through the affection of intense emotion.2 In justification of the sexo-yogic practice in esoteric Buddhism it has often been said that man is bound through emotion or attachment and he is again liberated through that very emotion. 1 It is further discussed, if perfect knowledge is attainable through the emotion of intense attachment, then all beings attached to worldly objects and sex-emotions might have been delivered; but it is warned that only by enjoying objects the incessant bliss arising out of great emotion (mahārāga-sukha) cannot be realized; mahārāga-sukha can only be realized after one has attained perfect knowledge about the immutable nature of the objects which transcends the threefold principles of defilement (bhāsatraya).

mahā-rāgeņa dravībhūta(m) bodhicitta-rūpā-mṛtī-bhutañ cintauet | MS. B. N. Sans. No. 31, p. 12(B).

In the commentary of the Marmakalikā-tantra rāga has been explained as the nine emotions (rasa) beginning with Sṛṅgāra; sanuragam iti śṛṅgārā-di-nava-rasa-sahitam/ MS. B. N. Sans. No. 83, p. 36(A). In the commentary of the fifth Dohā of the Dohākoṣa of Kānha-pāda the word suraa-vīra has been explained in the following manner,—"The union of Prajāā and Upāya is the union (surata); there, he (the Yogin) is the hero, because he controls all discharge by the strength of his incessant and intense emotion (mahārāga). suraa-vīra iti/prajāo-pāyayor dvandva-yogah suratam/tatrā'nava-chinna-mahārāga-rūpēna virāga-dalanād vīrah/ [MS. B. N. Sans. No. 47. p. 41(B)]. Again jinghai maaramdae (in the same Dohā) is explained as,—'Experiences undischarged bliss of the nature of intense emotion (mahārāga) through his strength in union. surata-vīratayā'cyuta-mahārāga-sukham anubhavatī'ty arthaḥ/ [Ibid., MS. p. 41(B)].

^{*} mahā-rāgā-nurāgeņa sahajā-nanda-svarūpatah | MS. p. 55(B).

³ rāgena vadhyate loko rāgenaiva hi mucyate | viparīta-bhāvanā hy eṣā na jñātā buddha-tīrthikaih | Quoted in the Comm. of the Dohās of Kānha-pāda. MS. B. N. Sans. No. 47., p. 43(B).

In the Subhāṣita-samgraha this verse is ascribed to the Prajā-

Cf. also,—rāgena hanyate rāgo vahnidāham ca vahninā | Ekalla-vīra-canda-mahā-roṣana-tantra, MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 9089) p. 22(B).

is further confirmed by the authority of the Jñānavajra-samuccaya-mahā-yoga-tantra where it is said that those, who are attached only to sex-intercourse, never attain perfect knowledge of the nature of intense emotion (mahārāga); on the other hand, he who, through the intense joy arising out of the sexo-vogic practice, perfectly knows the nature of the principles of defilement (prakrty-ābhāsa) can enter into the bliss of intense emotion (mahārāga-sukha). Thus it is clear that the intensity of bliss through which the mind attains a transcendental stage where all the principles of phenomenalisation and defilement vanish away, is the mahārāga. In the Dākinī-vajra-pañjara it has been said that the Yogin of the nature of great emotion and absorbed in the Samādhi of intense-emotion should adorn and adore the Mahāmudrā through deep attachment to great emotion. The world is produced through emotion and is again destroyed through the abandonment of it (i.e., by mere indulgence in sexpassions and discharge of the matter without knowing the tattva); by the knowledge of its transcendental nature mind becomes the Vajra-sattva. Again it is said in the Citta-viśuddhi-prakarana that man is affected by his emotional and passionate mind, but is also liberated through the enjoyment of passion. ' The wise should save himself from passions with the help of the passion. 5

So, it is clear from the above, that the word rāga was used to signify intense bliss of emotion which is produced through the methodical and well-controlled

¹ Com. MS. B.N. Sans. No. 47, p. 44(A). See also pp. 43(B).

^{*} mahä-rägä-nurägena mahä-räga-svabhävatah | mahä-räga-samädhistho mahä-mudräm prasädhayet ||

^{*} răgeno'tpadyate loko răga-kscpāt ksayam gatah | vajra-răga-parijñānāt vajra-sattvo bhaven manah || Quoted in the Subhāsita-samgraha.

^{*} rajyate raga-cittena raga-bhogena mucyate

Verse 35.

^{*} rāgeņaiva tathā rāgam uddharanti manīṣiṇaḥ || Verse 37.

union of the Prajñā and the Upāya; it is this emotion, which, because of its highest intensity, would absorb all the other constructive functions of the mind within it and thus would bring about the liberation of the Yogin.

(v) Samarasa

Closely associated with the idea of raga or transcendental emotion is the idea of samarasa or the sameness or oneness of emotion. In a deeper sense samarasa is the realisation of the oneness of the universe amidst all its diversities,-it is the realisation of the one truth as the one emotion or the all-pervading bliss. The meaning of samarasa is well explained in the Hevaira-tantra, where it is said that, in the Sahaja or the ultimate stage, there is the cognition of neither the Prajñā nor the Upāya, there is no sense of difference anywhere. In such a stage every thing whether the lowest or the middle or the best-all should be realised as the same.1 The self should be realised as neither something static nor something dynamic;-through the transcendental meditation on the underlying oneness of the cosmic principle every thing should be viewed as of the same character and function.2 The word samarasa has been explained here thus, -sama means the 'sameness' and rasa belongs to its cycle (cakra); thus samarasa means the oneness of the nature of all that is there in the cycle of existence." Samarasa actually means the realisation of self in the whole universe or the realisation of the universe as the self. The universe is said to have come out of the self, it is pervaded by the self-nothing else is found anywhere.

hīna-madhyo-tkṛṣṭāny eva anyāni yāni tāni ca sarve tāni samānī'ti draṣṭavyam tattva-bhāvataḥ Hevajra-tantra. MS. p. 22(B).

² sthīra-calam yāni tānī'ti sarve tānī'ti naivā'ham | samāni tulya-ceṣṭāni samarasais tattva-bhāvanaiḥ | Ibid., MS. p. 22(B)-23(A).

^{*} samam tulyam ity uktam tasya cakre rasah smrtah | samarasan tu ekabhavatvam etena rthena bhanyate | Ibid.

This realisation of the universe as the self is called the svātantryam 1 which is explained in the commentary as the state of absorption in the bliss of self-realisation. All existence, static and dynamic including grass, plants and creepers, etc., are to be realised as the highest truth of the nature of the self; amongst them there is nothing which is other than the self,-for the ultimate nature of all things is 'great bliss' (mahat sukham) which is to be first realised within the self.2 At that time the five elements earth, water, air, fire and ether shake off the distinctive features of diversity and in no way do they disturb the oneness of the transcendental emotion; heaven, earth and hell become one within a moment and they can no more be recognised as the self or the not-self. In the Abhiseka-patala of the same text we see that the Guru (or the Preceptor) should explain to the disciple (and also make him realise) the samarasa, which is nothing but a knowledge to be realised within, which is free from the notions of the self and the not-self, which is sky-like, stainless, void, which is of the nature of both existence and non-existence and which is the ultimate truth: it is a combination of both Prajñā and Upāya-bereft

¹ mad-bhāvam hi jagat-sarvam mad-bhāvam bhuvana-trayam |
mayā vyāptam idam sarvam nā'nyamayam drsyate jagat ||
evam matvā tu vai yogī yogā-bhyāse samāhitaḥ |
sa sidhyati na sandeho manda-puṇyo'pi mānavah ||
khāne pāne tathā snāne jāgrat-supte'pi cintayet |
svātantryam tu tato yāti mahā-mudrā-dhikānkṣakaḥ (?) ||
Ibid., MS. p. 23(A).

^{*} sthira-calāś ca ye bhāvās tṛṇa-gulma-latā-dayaḥ |
bhāvyante vai param tattvam ātma-bhāva-svarūpakam |
teṣām ekam param nā'sti sva-samvedyam mahat-sukham |
sva-samvedyāt bhavet siddhih sva-samvedyā hi bhāvanā |
Ibid., MS. p. 23(B).

^{*} pṛthivī āpas ca vāyus teja ākāsam eva ca | kṣanāt sarve ca vadhyante sva-para-samvitti-vedanam | svarga-martyais ca pātālair eka-mūrtir bhavet kṣanāt | sva-para-bhāva-vikalpena bādhitum naiva sakyate | Ibid., MS. p. 24(A).

^{*} kāritavyañ ca tatraiva samarasam sişya-gocaram | Ibid., MS. p. 27(A).

of both raga and viraga; that is the life of the creatures, the ultimate and immutable, all-pervading and belonging to all the bodies-that is the great life identified with the universe. 1 Thus samarasa in its philosophical bearing means the same thing as the advaya or the yuganaddha. In the Vyakta-bhāvā-nugatatattva-siddhi it has been said that when one enters into the state of Mahāsukha, produced through the union of Prajñā and Upāya, a state free from all thought constructions, the whole world becomes of the nature of a unique emotion in the form of Mahāsukha. Through this unique emotion of bliss the whole world as static and dynamic takes the form of Mahāsukha and all become one.3

In the Caryā-padas and the Dohās of Saraha and Kanha the word samarasa is used freely in the sense of advaya. It is said in a song of Bhusuka-pāda that as

All these lines with slight deviations in readings are also found in the Samputikā. Cf. MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 4854) pp. 13(A)-13(B).

Cf. further the Samputika where it is said that samasara is the pure mixture of both raga and viraga, -- and that samarasa is the unique knowledge about all existence.

rāgan caiva virāgan ca miśrīkṛtam anāvilam! tathā rāga-virāgābhyām ekah samarasah ksanah | samarasah sarva-bhāvanām samayas tv eka ucyate|

Samputikā, MS. p. 10(B).

² In the Acintyā-dvaya-kramo-padeša of Kuddāla-pāda it is said that as all the entities come from transcendental knowledge of the form of samarasa, they are non-dual in nature.

advayā-kāra-sarvan tu dvayam etat na vidyate samam samarasā-kāram acintya-jñāna-sambhūtam |

MS. (C.L.B.), p. 108(B). 3 asmin prajño-pāyo-tpanna-mahāsukhā-loka-sthāne parityaktasakala-kalpanā-kalāpa atišaya-bhogatām upagata-ka-raņa-grāmeņa praviste sati jagad idam eva mahāsukhā-kāra-rasai-katām prayāti/ samarasa-sukha-sampad-anutpāda-śriyā sakalam eva calā-calam visvam mahāsukhā-kāram eyāt/

Vyakta-bhāvā-nugata-tattva-siddhi, MS. (C.L.B.) p. 89(A).

¹ sva-samvedyāt bhavet jāānam sva-para-samvitti-varjitam kha-samam virajam sunyam bhava-bhava-tmakam param prajňo-pāya-vyatimiśram rāgā-raga-vivarjitam | sa eva prāninām prānah sa eva paramā-kṣarah || sarva-vyāpī sa evāsau sarva-dehe vyavasthitah | sa evā'sau mahā-prāṇah sa evā'sau jaganmayah | Ibid., MS. p. 27(A).

water mixed with water leaves no difference of any kind, so also the jewel of mind enters the sky of samarasa.1 In samarasa both the positive and negative aspects of the mind vanish; it is pure and free from all existence as well as non-existence.2 Where the mind sets in, all bondage is torn off,-there in a non-dual state every thing becomes same, there is neither the Sūdra nor the Brāhmaṇa. 3 Samarasa is that state where the mind enters into the vacuity as water enters into water; it is the receptacle of all merits and demerits. ' It is said by Kānha-pāda,—'He who has made his mind steady in samarasa which is the Sahaja, becomes at once perfect, no more will he suffer from disease and death. If the mind is absorbed in his (mind's) wife (i.e., śūnyatā) as salt is absorbed in water, there follows samarasa which is an unique state of mind with a never-failing flow of oneness." This samarasa or the sāmarasya is the union of the Prajñā and the Upāya. In the Hindu Tantras also the word sāmarasya is extensively used in the sense of the union, or rather the oneness of emotion proceeding from the union of Siva and Sakti.

i jima jale pāṇiā ṭaliā bheda na jāa | tima mana (maraṇa, Sic.) raaṇa (aana, Sic.) re samarase gaaṇa samāa ||

Caryā-pada. Song No. 43. (Sāstri's Edition).

² jahi jāi citta tahi suņahu acitta |

samarasa [nimmala bhāvābhāva-rahia] ||
Dohā of Tillopāda, No. 11. (Dr. Bagchi's Edition).

i javve mana atthamana jäi tanu tuttai vandhana | tavve samarasa sahaje vajjai naü sudda na vamhana || Dohā of Saraha No. 46.

i jatta vi paisai jalahi jalu tattai samarasa hoi dosagunāara cittatahā vadha parivakkha na koi Dohā No. 74.

sahaje niccala jena kia samarase niamana rāa | siddho so puņa takkhane naŭ jarāmaranaha sa bhāa || Dohā No. 19.

* jima lona vilijjai pāniehi tima gharini lai citta | samarasa jāi takkhane jai punu te sama nitta | Dohā No. 32.

† prajño-pāya-mahā-guhyam samarasā-[dhya]m (?) ucyate || Subhāṣita-saṃgraha, p. 69.

(vi) Mahāsukha (Supreme Bliss) As The Final Goal: Nirvāna And Mahāsukha

The next important thing to be considered is the conception of nirvana as Mahasukha. The problem of making out the exact implication of the conception of nirvāna is rather a stumbling block with the Buddhist scholars; the reason for it is that, though it is the most highly spoken of in many of the canonical and philosophical texts, it is, and by nature could be, the least explained. Not that its nature has been least discussed, but that out of all the controversial discussions it is not possible to form any definite notion about it, and in general it is the unspeakable transcendental nature of nirvana that has variously been emphasised. Buddha himself observed the principle of significant silence with regard to the problem of nirvana and it is in consonance with his general agnostic attitude towards all the metaphysical problems. According to some scholars, however, the problem of nirvana was no vital question with primitive Buddhism which was concerned more with the four noble truths (āryasatya) than with the problem of the after world.

(A) NIRVĀŅA AS A POSITIVE STATE OF BLISS

Apart from the controversial views of the scholars as to whether the conception of nirvāṇa in early Buddhism was positive or negative, we may say for ourselves that though the Buddhist conception of nirvāṇa from the early time may admit of negative interpretations, the description of its positive character is not also wanting. The etymological meaning of the word is an eternal stoppage to a flow; and in this sense we may take the word to imply the complete cessation

¹ Vide, The Principles of Mahayana Buddhism by Suzuki, Ch. XIII.

The word nirvāṇa is derived as $nir + \sqrt{va}$ (fused with the \sqrt{vr}) + ta. The prefix nir implies negation, the root \sqrt{va} means to blow and the suffix ta is added in the impersonal voice (i.e., $bh\bar{a}vavavava$).

of the cycle of birth and death. The derivation of the word also gives the meaning of the blowing out as of a lamp, or, the eternal tranquillity resulting from the cessation of all the vāsanās and samskāras and the consequent escape from the life of birth and death. From this idea of tranquillisation the word developed the meaning of perfect peace. From the discourse of Reverend Nagasena with king Milinda in the Milindapañho, (which is a Pāli work of antiquity) it appears that whatever might have been the philosophical concept of nirvana, it was something positive so far as the popular belief was concerned.1 The element of nirvana (nibhāna-dhātu) is said to be quiescent (santa), bliss (sukha), excellent (panita), it is to be attained through perfect knowledge (paññā) by the removal of the deeprooted impressions (sankhāra). Just as a man burn-

¹ Nagasena explains to the King that it is not possible to speak of any definite form (rūpa) or situation (santhānam), or time (vaua) or evidence (pamāņa) of nirvāna either through any example (opamma) or cause (kārana) or reason (hetu) or system (naya) of nirvāna; but as we cannot say anything about the denizens of heaven, yet we do believe in their existence, so also the existence of nirvāna should be believed in, though we cannot say anything about it. Nevertheless, nirvāna has got its qualities (gunas). It contains one guna of the lotus, two gunas of water, three gunas of medicine, four gunas of the ocean, five gunas of eating, ten gunas of the sky, three gunas of the precious jewel, three gunas of red sandal, three gunas of the sappi-manda (preparations from butter) and five gunas of the peak of the mountain. As the lotus is never wet in water, so also nirvana is never affected by the afflictions (kilesa). As water is cold and quenches thirst, so also nirvana is cool and calm through the extinction of the klesas and it also quenches our thirst (tanhā) for all the worldly desires. As medicine (agada) is the cure of a man affected with poison, so, nirvana is the cure of all the poison of afflictions (kilesa-visa). Like medicine nirvāna removes all sorrows and is itself nectar (amata). Like food nirvāna gives us strength and energy and it sustains us throughout. Again like the sky nirvana is not produced, it does not produce, it is incomprehensible, uncreate, unveiled, infinite like the sky. Like a precious jewel nirvana fulfils our desires; like red sandal it is rare and scented; like the preparation from butter (sappi-manda) it has colour and qualities (guna-vanna-sampannam), scent of good conduct (sila-gandha-sampannam), and is tasteful (rasa-sampannam); like the mountain peak it is lofty, immutable, difficult to be attained, and destroyer of the seeds of afflictions.

ing in a great fire escapes the fire through his own effort and enters a fireless place and enjoys supreme bliss there, so also, a man, who through deep reflection on the nature of things gets rid of the threefold fire of raga (passion), dvesa (hatred) and moha (attachment), obtains nirvāna which is supreme bliss (paramasukha). Though in Pāli literature we often find nirvāna described as something unspeakable, yet in course of poetic description we find it described as the supreme (param), tranquil (santa), pure (visuddha), excellent (panīta), calm (santi), immutable (akkhara), eternal (dhruva), true (sacca), infinite (ananta), unchanging (accuta), permanent (sassata), immortal (amata), unborn (ajāta), uncreate (asamkhata, akata), eternal (kevala), all good (siva) and the safety of Yoga (yogakkhema), etc. It is, as Rhys Davids puts it,2 "the harbour of refuge, the cool cave, the island amidst the floods, the place of bliss, emancipation, liberation, safety, tranquil, the home of ease, the calm, the end of suffering, the medicine for all evil, the unshaken, the ambrosia, the immaterial, the imperishable, the abiding, the further shore, the unending, the bliss of effort, the supreme joy, the ineffable, the detachment, the holy city," etc. In the Sutta-nipāta nirvāna is spoken of as the quiescent. In the Majjhima-nikāya nirvāna has been described as a higher bliss than the acquisition of perfect health; the eightfold path alone leads to perfect peace-to ambrosia. In the Anguttara it has been said that a man by removing all his impurities attains nirvana and thus is relieved from all kinds of

Milinda-pañho—Ed. by V. Trenckner, pp. 828-24.
For general discussion on nirvana in the Milinda-pañho see pp. 315-326.

² A Dictionary of Pāli Language. See the word nibbāṇa.

³ santi'ti nibbāṇam ñatvā, etc. Ibid., p. 988.

⁴ ārogga-paramālābhā nibbāņam paramam sukham | aṭṭhangiko ca maggānam khemam amata-gāminam || Majjhima, 1.508, cj. Dhammapada. Verse. 204.

sorrows.1 In the Vimāna-vatthu nirvāna is spoken of as an immutable state where there is no suffering any more.2 In the Theri-gatha it is said that eternal bliss can be attained through the attainment of nirvana." Anguttara describes it as the supreme safety attained through Yoga. Sanjutta-nikāya describes it as nectarlike (amatam = immortal?), quiescent and immutable (amatam santim nibbāna-padam accutam). Similarly the Dhammapada speaks of it as the path to peace," as the supreme bliss.' In the Kathā-vatthu it has been said that the self or the soul (puggala) is not permanent (sassata) like nirvāna. By a study of the views of Buddhaghosa as expressed in the Visuddhimaggo against the Sautrantika view of the negative conception of nirvana we may come to the conclusion that according to Buddhaghosa nirvāna is some positive state of mind reached through the four kinds of jhānas. It is of the nature of peace (santi lakkhanam) and is a never-failing intuitive flow (accuti-rasam). The well-known lines of the Itivuttaka, viz., atthi bhikkhave ajātam abhūtam akatam asankhatam (there is that, 0 Bhiksus, which is unborn, unoriginated, uncreate and unproduced) also suggest a positive conception of nirvana.

Without multiplying instances we may conclude that in early Buddhism we do not find any consistent and clear-cut conception of nirvana,-it is sometimes described negatively (particularly by the Sautrantikas), but sometimes positively, and on the whole it

¹ odhunitvā malam sabbam patvā nibbāņa-sampadam | muccati sabba-dukkhehi sā hoti sabba-sampadā |

Anguttara, IV, 289 (Quoted by Rhys Davids).

pattā te acala-tthānam yathā gatvā na socare

Vimāna-vatthu, 51.

i nibbana-tthane vimutta te patta te acalam sukham Theri-gatha, 350.

^{*} santi-maggam eva brūhaya nibbānam sugatena desitam | Dhammapada, 285.

b etam natva yatha-bhutam nibbanam paramam sukham Dhammapada, 203, 204.

⁶ Kathā-vatthu, 170 (p. 34); (Quoted by Dr. N. Dutta). O.P. 105-19

seems that a conscious or unconscious positive tendency predominates over the negative one.

Coming to the Mahāyāna we find that the Mādhyamikas spoke of nirvāna not as something which is to be attained through the destruction or arrest of anything whatsoever, it is but the complete cessation of all mental constructions. It is the destruction of nothing, the attainment of nothing,-it is neither annihilation nor external existence, it is neither the supressed nor the produced—this is what is meant by nirvana. It is extremely difficult to conceive what this nirvana may be; but with this transcendentalism of Nagariuna we may compare the transcendentalism in the realisation of the Brahman as described in the Upanisads; but the great difference between the Upanisadic conception of the realisation of the highest truth with its conception as found in Nāgārjuna is that, whereas, in spite of all the negative descriptions, the Upanisads are definite on the point that in the realisation of the Brahman, or, the complete merging of the self in the absolute, there is infinite positive bliss,-Nagarjuna will not allow nirvāna to be determined by any categorical description whatsoever.

Candrakīrti in commentary his on Mādhyamika-vrtti, however, quotes the view of a school of thinkers according to whom there are two distinct types of nirvāna,-viz., nirvāna with some residual substratum (sopādhi-śesa) and nirvāna without any residual substratum at all (nirupādhi-śesa). 1 In the Visuddhi-magga also Buddhaghosa mentioned these two types of nirvāna. In Pāli literature we often find mention of savupādhi-sesa-nibbāna and anupādhisesa-nibbana corresponding to the above division. In the Advaya-vajra-samgraha also we find these divisions maintained. Prof. La Vallée Poussin, however, is inclined to connect these two divisions of nirvana with the Sautrantika division of prati-samkhyā-nirodha and

¹ Mādhyamika-vṛtti, Ch. XXV, Lévi's Edition.

apratisamkhyā-nirodha. We may, however, refer here to the conceptions of Samprajñāta and the Asamprajñāta Samādhi of the Pātañjala-yoga system.

We have seen that in the other school of Mahayana Buddhism, viz., the school of Vijñāna-vāda, the ultimate reality began to be more and more positively described, and consequently the conception of nirvana also became positive. In the Tathata-doctrine of Aśvaghosa it has been said that when through the eradication of the root-instincts or the complexes the disturbance in the subjective realm is destroyed, we become free from all processes of false idealisation and can realise the truth as the 'thatness' or the 'oneness' underlying all phenomena, and the complete eradication of individuation and the realisation of the 'thatness' as the oneness or the totality of the universe is what is meant by nirvana. In such a state, there is no activity of the consciousness, and through the cessation of all conscious processes there remain only eternal calmness and quiescence. In the Saundarananda Kāvya of Aśvaghosa it has been said of nirvāna,-" As the light, when blown out, goes neither towards the earth nor towards the space above-neither towards any quarter, nor towards what is not a quarter, but attains perfect calmness due to the complete exhaustion of oil; so also, when one attains extinction, one goes neither towards the earth nor towards the space above, neither towards a quarter nor towards what is not a quarter, but due to the annihilation of the afflictions attains eternal quiescence."1

In the Vijnāna-vāda doctrine of Asanga and Vasubandhu nirvāna means the realisation of the voidnature of both the self and of the external objects. But śūnyatā with them is no nihil, it is not the absolute denial of any reality; it is but the negation of subjectivity and objectivity, pure consciousness (vijnapti-

¹ Saundarānandam Kāvyam, edited by MM. H. P. Sāstrī and published by the R.A.S.B., Ch. XVI, Verses 28-29.

mātratā) is the one ultimate reality. In nirvāņa these grāhya and grāhaka are annihilated, but the pure consciousness remains. This pure consciousness is the dharma-kāya,—it is the undifferentiated absolute oneness. But can it be said that this dharma-kāya is a positive state of absolute bliss? The Vijñāna-vādins do not make any definite reply to this question; but in the Vijñapti-mātratā-siddhi it has been said about the nature of the pure consciousness,—"It is the immutable element which is beyond the reach of all mentation; it is all good, permanent, perfect bliss,—it is liberation—the substance itself". According to the Vijñāna-vādins there is no heterogeneity between samsāra and nirvāṇa; but the perfect knowledge of the samsāra as the śūnyatā or as the pure consciousness (according to the Vijñāna-vādins) is itself nirvāna.

(B) NIRVĀŅA AS MAHĀSUKHA IN THE BUDDHIST TANTRAS

From the above we may conclude that from the early period down to the period of Vijñāna-vāda the conception of nirvāṇa admits of positive interpretations, at least in a popular way, if not in the strictly philosophical sense, and it is described in some places not only as positive but as intense bliss. This conception of nirvāṇa as intense bliss was elaborated to a great length by the Vajra-yānists, particularly by the Sahaja-yānists where nirvāṇa is identified with intense bliss or Mahāsukha. With them nirvāṇa is the ultimate reality,—it is the Dharma-kāya,—and that is the Lord Buddha—that is the Vajra-dhara or the Vajra-sattva; "—it is the Mahāsukha,—it is the Bodhicitta, 'sattva; "—it is the Mahāsukha,—it is the Bodhicitta, 'sattva; "—it is the Mahāsukha,—it is the Bodhicitta, 'sattva; "—it is the Bodhicita, 'sattva; "—it is the Bodhic

¹ Trimśikā, Verse 30.

² Vide, Sarva-devatā-gama-tantra, quoted in the Subhāṣita-samgraha.

Vide, Advaya-samatā-vijaya quoted in the Jūāna-siddhi (G.O.S.), p. 83.

Jūāna-siddhi, Ch. XV. See also Comm. on Marma-kalikātantra,—jina-śri-herukah/tasya hrdayam akṣara-bodhicittam/tasya hrdaya-mahāsukham etc. MS. B.N. Sans. No. 83, p. 29(B).

-it is the Sahaja,-it is pure consciousness, and the nature of pure consciousness is bliss.

In the Buddhist Tantras the element of nirvāṇa (nirvāṇa-dhātu) is described as incessant bliss (satata-sukhamaya), it is the abode of both enjoyment as well as liberation; it is called Mahāsukha, where there is no change or decrease. It is the seed of all substance, it is the ultimate stage of those who have attained perfection; it is the highest place of the Buddhas and is called the Sukhāvatī (the abode of bliss).

But this bliss (sukha) has often been repudiated as a mere thought-construction (vikalpa), whereas nirvāṇa is the annihilation of all sorts of thoughtconstruction; it is therefore said by Nāgārjuna-pāda in his Apratiṣṭhāna-prakāśa that as long as there flows in

Pañca-krama, Ch. IV.

* kṣaya-vyaya-vinirmuktam śri-mahāsukha-saminitam | Ibid., MS. p. 18(A).

* tad-bijam sarva-vastūnām siddhā(i, sic.)nām ca param padam | buddhānā(m) tat param sthānam sukhāvatyabhidhānakam | Ibid., MS. p. 13(B).

In this Guhya-siddhi the transcendental arrest (divya-samādhi) is also characterised as of the nature of great bliss. (Cf. divyasamādhimāsthāya mahāsukha-sukhātmakam-MS. p. 5A, 6A). In another quotation in the Subhasita-samgraha it has been said that those wise men who have been able to realise the nature of the whole universe as Sahaja-as free from all imagination-as the supportless (nirālambam), have attained the state of the Sugata which is of the nature of pure and intense bliss. In the Dakarnava the Vajrayāna yoga has been described as the union of Prajñā and Upāya and as of the nature of immutable bliss. (P. 158, Sāstri's Edition). In this ocean of existence, ruffled by huge waves and with poisonous water and full of ferocious animals of passions etc., bliss is the only shore. (Sādhana-mālā, Vol. II, p. 449). In the Kriyā-samgraha the path of esoteric Buddhism has been characterised as the 'vehicle of great bliss' (mahāsukha-yāna). (MS. p. 74A). In the Adi-buddha-tantra it has been said that there is no greater vice than detachment (virāga) and no greater merit than bliss. So the citta should always be kept absorbed in the changeless bliss. virāgāt (na) param pāpam na punyam sukhatah param/ato'kṣarasukhe cittam nivesyantu sadā nrpa// Quoted in the Comm. of the Dohākosa of Kānhupāda, Dohā No. 10.

¹ Caturābharaņa-MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 4801) p. 7(B).

bhukti-mukti-padam divyam nirvānā-khyam param padam | Guhya-siddhi, MS. p. 13(A).

the mind any sort of thought-construction (vikalpa)—
every thing is to be left off; for, even that which is of
the nature of bliss and makes the heart happy is itself
a mere mentation; even the feeling of detachment,—
nay, both of attachment and detachment, should be
cast off; for, all these are main causes of existence;—
there is nirvāṇa nowhere except in the transcendental
existence of the self.

In a Dohā Saraha-pāda warns not to confuse the truth that is only to be realised within; both positive and negative thought-constructions bind the man. In the final stage the individual consciousness or egohood should merge in the all-pervading universal consciousness like water merging into water. In the commentary it has been said that to identify the final state with Sukha is a mere confusion. No positive conception of this final stage nor any negative conception or any construction of this type can conduce to perfect There is no difference between a enlightenment. golden chain and an iron chain, for both will bind a man and therefore both are to be avoided. It has further been said that the wise never enter into any thought-construction about the ultimate state; for there is no fundamental difference between a thoughtconstruction that is bad and the one which is good; for both will bind a man in the world of suffering; no

yad vā vairāgya-hetos tad api yad ubhayan tad bhavasyā' grahetuh

Quoted in the Comm. on the Caryā Song No. 13. Also Cf. Comm. on the Dohā No. 58 of Saraha-pāda.

¹ yāvat kaścid vikalpaḥ prabhavati manasi tyajya-rūpaḥ sa sarvaḥ yo'sāvā'nanda-rūpaḥ hṛdaya-sukha-karaḥ so'pi samkalpamātrah |

nirvāņam nā'nyad asti kvacid api viņaye nirvikalpā-tmabhāvāt ||

^{*} saasamvitti ma karahu re dhandhā | bhāvā-bhāva sugati re bandhā || nia mana muṇahu re niune joi | jima jala jalahi milante soi || Saraha-pāda, Dohā No. 32.

³ See Comm. on Dohā No. 32 of Saraha-pāda,

difference is produced in the burning capacity of fire through the change of fuel; if fire be made even with the logs of a sandal tree it will burn whenever touched. But though here it has been strongly warned not to confuse nirvāṇa with sukha, yet in a general way nirvāṇa in esoteric Buddhism has been described all along as Mahāsukha and it is identified with Mahāsukha. The advocates of Mahāsukha will justify their own position by describing Mahāsukha as transcending all kinds of thought-constructions, it is an absolutely pure emotion of bliss in which all the activities of the mind are absolutely lost.

(C) THE COSMOLOGICAL AND ONTOLOGICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF MAHĀSUKHA

As Mahāyāna Buddhism often speaks of nirvāṇa as the ultimate reality—as the Dharma-kāya—so also the nature of this Mahāsukha has variously been described in the Buddhist Tantras as the ultimate reality transcending, or rather absorbing within it, both existence (bhāva) and extinction (nirvāṇa). Mahāsukha is something which has neither the beginning nor any middle, nor any end: it is neither existence nor annihilation; this transcendental supreme bliss is neither the not-self nor the self. In the Mahāsukha-prakāśa (collected in the Advaya-

² Cf. "All thought-construction is destroyed in sat-sukha".— Subhāṣita-saṃgraha.

Again,—"That supreme transcendental bliss is void and perfectly pure, where there is neither any vice nor any merit". sunna niranjana parama-mahāsuha tahi punna na pāva ||—Dohā quoted in the Hevajra-tantra.

¹ paramā-rtha-vikalpe'pi nā'valīyeta paṇḍitaḥ |
ko hi bhedo vikalpasya śubhe vā'py aśubhe'pi vā ||
nā'dhāra-bhedāt bhedo'sti vahni-dāhakatām prati |
spṛśyamāno dahaty eva candanair jvālito'py asau ||
Quoted in the Comm. on Dohā No. 32.

³ āi ņa anta ņa majhu ņa ņau bhava ņau nibhāņa | ehuso parama mahāsuha ņau para ņau appāna || Quoted in the Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 61(A).

vajra-samgraha) Mahāsukha is described as the Lord Vajra-sattva of the nature of the unity of Prajñā and Upāya; it is the non-dual quintessence of all the entities.1 It is further said that perfect wisdom is never possible without bliss; perfect wisdom itself is of the nature of bliss. 2 All objects are Mahāsukha by nature; but due to our ignorance they appear as poison to us. 1 It is said by Bhadra-pada that every thing proceeds from supreme bliss; the highly luminous Prajña, which enables a man to attain perfect Buddhahood, also proceeds from this supreme bliss.4 The body of knowledge, which is undisturbed and unchanging supreme bliss, itself takes the form of the whole universe. 5 In the Samputikā it has been said that perfectly pure knowledge, which in essence is the goddess herself (Prajñā = goddess), is called the Vajrasattva-it is also called the supreme bliss; it is selforiginated-of the nature of Dharma-kaya and to it belongs Prajña, absorbed in the nature of Sahaja. The Hevajra-tantra describes elaborately the nature of sukha as the ultimate reality. It is the Dharma-kāya, it is the Lord Buddha himself. Sukha is black, it is yellow, it is red, it is white, it is green, it is blue, it is the whole universe: it is Prajñā, it is Upāya, it results from the ultimate union; it is existence, it is non-

2 sukhā-bhāve na bodhih syāt matā yā sukha-rūpiņī |

Ibid., p. 50.

4 Subhāsita-samgraha.

vajra-sattvam namaskrtya prajno-pāya-[sva]rūpiņam| mahāsukhā-dvayam vakṣye vastu-tattvam samāsatah || Advaya-vajra-samgraha, p. 50 (G.O.S.).

ete'pi vişayā(h) svarūpatah mahāsukha-rūpinah | kintu avidyā-vasat viṣavat niṣpadyante | Comm. on the Marma-kalikā-tantra.

^{*} sarvā-kāram prayāty akṣara-sukhā-nāhatam jñāna-kāyam | Śri-kāla-cakra, MS. (Cambridge, Add. No. 1364).

^{*} suvišuddha-mahā-jūānam sarva-devī-svarūpakam | vajra-sattva iti khyātam param sukham udārhṛtam || svayambhu-rūpam etat tu dharma-kāya-svarūpakam | tasyaiva sahajā prajūā sthitā tad-gata-rūpiņī || Samputikā, MS. p. 48(B).

existence—it is the Vajra-sattva. But the question is, if everything be by nature nothing but Mahāsukha, what is the necessity of any origination (utpāda) at all? The reply is that sukha is not possible at all without the body, for without body none would even be able to speak of saukhya. The implication seems to be that sukha as the highest reality can only be realised through the medium of the body and hence is the necessity of the world of objects though every thing is by nature nothing but sukha. Sukha itself pervades the whole world as the pervader (vyāpaka) as well as the pervaded (vyāpya); but as the smell of a flower cannot be perceived without the flower, so also sukha as the quintessence of all that is originated can never be realised without the world of originated objects.2 In the Guhya-siddhi it is said that through the union of the void-element (kha-dhātu) and the thunder (vajra) the great element is produced in the form of bliss which yields paramā-nanda; after the cessation of paramā-nanda is produced viramā-nanda * and the supreme bliss that follows viramā-nanda is of indescribable nature; it is bereft of all the senses (i.e., inaccessible to all the senses), undisturbed non-dual and good; it is all-pervading non-essential, it is perfect wisdom-it is the ultimate state; it is divine, all-good, it is the ultimate stage of liberation to the Sādhakas,this is what is the pure transcendental non-substantial

¹ sukham kṛṣṇam sukham pītam sukham raktam sukham sitam | sukham śyāmam sukham nīlam sukham kṛtsnam carā-caram || sukham prajāā sukho-pāyah sukham kundurujam tathā | sukham bhāvah sukhā-bhāvo vajra-sattvah sukhah smṛtah || Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 35(B).

² dehā-bhāve kutaḥ saukhyam saukhyam vaktum na śakyate | vyāpya-vyāpaka-rūpena sukhena vyāpitam jagat | yathā puṣpā-śritam gandham puṣpā-bhāve na gamyate | tathā utpannā-dy-abhāvena saukhyam naivo'palabhyate || Ibid., MS. p. 36(A).

³ kha-dhātu is śūnyatā, it is the Prajňā—the female and vajra is the Upāya, the male. Vide Supra.

⁴ Paramā-nanda, Viramā-nanda, etc. will be explained later on.

Bodhicitta. The bliss that is produced through some cause itself destroys the cause of Samsāra; supreme bliss is of the nature of self-produced knowledge without involving any mental construction.2 The nature of Mahāsukha cannot be realised through the theories of the void etc. and all other false constructions; through the purification of Prajñā and Upāya it is revealed that Mahāsukha is the one non-dual knowledge. All the entities, static or dynamic, remain ultimately in a state of non-duality,-they are by nature pure from the beginning and clear like the calm sky above : the epithet non-dual is also a mere name of this ultimate nature, this name also does not remain there, and this non-duality, in which there is neither the knowable nor the knower, is what is called the Mahāsukha.4 When Prajñā and Upāva are combined together in oneness,-the non-dual knowledge is produced which is Mahāsukha. That Mahāsukha of the

niḥsvabhāvam param śuddham bodhicittam anuttaram || Guhya-siddhi, MS, p. 10(B).

yad idam sannimitta-sukham tad-eva jagatān nimitta-parihīnam |

jñāna-svayambhū-rūpam mahāsukham kalpanā-śūnyam || Vyakta-bhāvānugata-tattva-siddhi, MS. (C.L.B. No 1312) p. 86(A).

* śūnyo-palambha-vādena mithyā-vādena vāhitāḥ | kalpanā-jāla-vandhena naiva budhyanti śrī-sukham || duṣkalpa-kalpanā bāhyā prajňo-pāya-viśuddhitaḥ | mahā-yogā-dvaya-jñānam ekam eva mahāsukham || Acintyā-dvaya-kramo-padeśa, MS. (C.L.B. 13124) p. 109(A).

* sarva-sthira-calā bhāvā advayena vyavasthitāh | svabhāvena višuddhās te šāntā-kāša-sunirmalāh || advayam nāma-mātram tu tac ca nāmam na vidyate | vedya-vedaka-nirlakṣam advayam tu mahāsukham || Ibid., MS. p. 109(A).

¹ kha-dhātu-vajra-samyogāt samsparšāc ca mahā-bhūtam |
sukham utpadyate yat tat paramā-nanda-kārakam ||
tat-kṣayāc ca viramas tu viramāt tu (mastu, Sic) yat param |
anirdeŝya-svarūpam tu kim apy utpadyate tu yat ||
sarve-ndriya-vinirmuktam niravandvam paramam sivam |
vyāpakam niḥsvabhāvanca tad bodhiḥ paramam padam ||
divyam samanta-bhadrā-khyam viramā-nte vyavasthitam |
sādhakānām param hy etat mukti-sthānam prakīrtitam ||

nature of non-dual knowledge transcends all colour, sound and taste, it is free from smell and touch, it is of the nature of pure and supreme knowledge made up of the ultimate element behind the dharmas (dharmadhātu); it is bereft of all mentation, free from the knower and the known; it is the naturally pure abode as ultimate non-duality. Through perfect knowledge the transcendental bliss of the Buddhas is infinite, it is all-pervading—spontaneous flow of intense bliss—it is the non-dual truth.

We have already seen that in Vajra-yāna the ultimate reality is identified with the conception of a Lord Supreme (Bhagavān) as the Vajra-dhara or the Vajra-sattva or simply the Lord. Here in the conception of Mahāsukha also we see that when Mahāsukha was identified with the ultimate reality it was conceived variously as the Lord Supreme. We sometimes find goddess Vārāhī (the goddess supreme, the Sūnyatā or the Nairātmā) deeply embracing the Lord Mahāsukha, sometimes we hear of the Lord Srī-mahāsukha as of the form of infinite bliss, sometimes again the lord is saluted as the Srīman-mahāsukha. The

¹ prajño-pāya-mahā-karuṇā-samarasā-kāram ekatah | tasmin nispadyate jñānam advayam tu mahāsukham || rūpa-sabda-rasā-tītam gandha-sparšā-di-varjitam | dharma-dhātumayam suddham jñānam uttamam || sarva-sanka(|pa)-nirmuktam grāhya-grāhaka-varjitam | svabhāva-suddham nilayam advayam pāramārthikam || Ibid., MS. p. 109(B).

² anantam vyāpakam sarva-jñāna-prabhāvatah | sva-cehanda-paramā-nandam advayam budāha-sat-sukham || Ibid., MS. p. 112(A).

² Cf. vārāhy-ālingita-mahā-saukhyam. Sādhana-mālā. Vol. II, p. 491.

⁴ ananta-sukha-rūpatvāt śrī-mahāsukha-samjñitam | Prajño-pāya-viniścaya-siddhi, p. 6.

^{*} sarva-buddhā-tmakam nātham natvā śrī-man-mahāsukham | Pañca-krama, MS. p. 15(A).

Also:—
jayati sukha-rāja ekaḥ kāraṇa-rahitaḥ sado-dito jagatām |
yasya ca nigadana-samaye vacana-daridro babhūva sarvajñaḥ ||
Vyakta-bhāvā-nugata-tattva-siddhi. MS. (C.L.B.) No.
13124, p. 85(A).

secret of the ultimate truth is said to be explained by the Lord Mahāsukha¹ as all the doctrines of Buddhism are said to have been explained by Lord Buddha himself. Sometimes it is said that Lord Śrī-mahāsukha has created this world of differences from his non-dual nature.² He, as the Lord Caṇḍaroṣaṇa of the nature of incessant bliss, remains in the lotus,² which is often called the abode of Sukhāvatī.⁴

(D) Mahāsukha in Relation to the Esoteric Practice

The advocates of Vajra-yāna and Sahaja-yāna hold that the pleasure that is realised through the discharge of matter is much lower, in respect of degree as well as in quality, than the bliss that can be realised through the control of this matter, i.e., by checking its downward flow through subtle yogic processes and by giving it an upward flow so as to make it reach the lotus situated in the cerebrum region (uṣṇṣṣa-kamala, corresponding to the sahasrāra-padma of the Hindu Tantras) and to make it steady there: the bliss resulting from the steadiness of the matter is the Mahāsukha. But in a popular way we often find semen-

mahasukham pranamya'dau vāk-pathā-tīta-gocaram | vakṣyate padma-vajrena guhya-siddhir anuttaram || Guhya-siddhi. MS. (C.L.B.) No. 18124, p. 1(B).

yan mahāsukha-nāthena guhya-tattvam udāhṛtam | Ibid., MS. p. 14.

Cf. also,—śrī-mahāsukha-nāthena yathā śrī-dharma-vajrine | darśitam śuddha-tattvā-khyam tathā nātha prasīda me | Ibid., MS. p. 40.

Also,—śrī-mahāsukha-nāthasya pāda-padmo-pajīvinā | racitah padma-vajreņa sarva-sattvā-nukampayā || Also,—vijahāra tatah śrī-mān śrī-mahāsukha-vajrinah ||

Guhya-siddhi. MS. p. 17.

**eka-loli svabhävena jagad-ākāra-nirmitam|

*srī-mahāsukha-nāthena advayā-kāra-bhedatah||

Acintyā-dvaya-kramo-padeśa. MS. (C.L.B.) p. 109(A).

kuru padma yathā kāryam dhairya-dhairyam (?) prayogatah |
svayam canda-mahārosah sthito hy atra sadāsukhah ||

Ekalla-vīra-caṇḍa-mahā-roṣaṇa-tantra. MS. (R.A.S.B. 9089) pp. 5(A)-5(B).

* Cf. aho sukhāvatī kṣetra etc.

Ibid., MS. p. 9(A).

virile described as Mahāsukha, and it is the Lord Buddha himself. Lord Buddha (Amitābha Buddha) dwells in the elvsium of Sukhāvatī (the abode of bliss). Here the female organ is described as the Sukhāvatī where the lord Mahāsukha dwells in his own nature as supreme bliss. In the Hevaira-tantra we find that the Lord (Bhagavān) is explaining his own nature to the Bodhisattva Vajragarbha where he says,-"I am existence-I am not existence,-I am Buddha (perfectly enlightened one) as I have perfect knowledge about things: fools can never know anything of me. I dwell in the Sukhāvatī of the vagina of the good thunderwoman (sad-vaira-vosit) which is of the form of the letter 'e' and which is the abode of the jewels of the Buddhas. I am the preacher, I am the religion-I myself am the audience; I am the worshipped,-the sovereign of the world,-I am the world and every thing that belongs to the world. I am of the nature of the Sahaja-bliss,-I am Paramā-nanda as well as Viramā-nanda etc.: I am the faith, like a light in darkness. I possess the thirty-two marks (of greatness)-I am the lord with the eighty consonants; I dwell in the Sukhāvatī of the vagina of the female in the name of semen." It is further said,—"Without him (i.e. semen) there is no bliss, and again without bliss he cannot be. As he can never be related, there is no other source of

These lines occur also in the Sampuțikā, MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 4854) p. 47(A).

¹ Cf. ekārākṛti yad divyani etc. Supra.
² bhāvo'ham naiva bhāvo'ham buddho'ham vastu-bodhanāt | mām na jānanti ye mūḍhāh kauṣidyo-pahataś ca ye || (?) vihare'ham sukhāvatyām sad-vajra-yoṣito bhage | ekārā-di-rūpe tu buddha-ratna-karaṇḍake || vyākhyātā' ham aham dharmah śrotā'ham sva-ganair yutaḥ | sādhyo' ham jagatah śāstā loko' ham laukiko'ham || sahajā-nanda-svabhāvo'ham parama-viramā-dikam | tathā ca pratyayam putra andhakāre pradīpavat || dvātrimśat-lakṣano śāstā'śīty-anuvyanjano prabhuh | yoṣit-bhage sukhāvatyām sukra-nāmnā vyavasthitaḥ || Hevajra-tantra, MS. pp. 36(A)-36(B).

realising him excepting the divine esoteric practice." 1 It is therefore said that Buddha (in the form of semen) is neither existence nor non-existence; in spite of having a face and form—he is formless in the nature of supreme bliss.²

(E) THE TRANSFORMED IDEA OF BODHICITTA IN RE-LATION TO THE ESOTERIC YOGIC PRACTICE.

The identification of Mahāsukha with nirvāna or the ultimate reality modified the Mahayana conception of Bodhicitta in Vaira-vana, particularly in the Sahajavana. The Mahavana conception of the production of Bodhicitta (bodhi-citto-tpāda) is transformed in Sahajavana into the production of a state of intense bliss through the sexo-vogic practice; and as after the production, the Bodhicitta rises upwards through ten stages (technically known as the Bodhisattva-bhūmis) so also Sahaja-yāna practice involves the vogic process of breath-control and other psycho-physical practices through which the disturbed semen should be checked in the Manipura (situated near the navel) known generally as the Nirmana-cakra, and then it must march upwards through the Dharma-cakra situated in the heart and the Sambhoga-cakra situated in the throat and then reach the Usnīsa-kamala (i.e., the lotus

vīnā tena na saukhyam syāt sukham hitvā bhaven na sah | sāpekṣam asamarthatvāt devatā-uogatoh sukham || Ibid., p. 36(B). Samputikā. MS, p. 47(A).

Cj. also the Comm: —śukrā-bhāve kāraṇā-ntarāṇām tathāvidhasukho-tpādane sāmarthyā-bhāvāt / Hevajra-pañjikā.

² asmāt buddho na bhāvah syāt abhāva-rūpo'pi naiva saḥ | bhuja-mukhā-kāra-rūpī ca arūpī parama-saukhyataḥ |

Ibid., MS. p. 36(B).

Cj. also the Comm:—na bhāvo nā'bhāvo sukra-rūpatvāt/tatra
phalamayi-buddho (?) na bhāvo nā'bhāvah/ Hevajra-panjikā.

In the Srī-kāla-cakra we find that the downward flow of semen should be checked in the Manipura (the lotus in the navel) and then, by making it steady, bliss is to be realised; this steady bliss, says the Kāla-cakra, at once gives Sahaja, which is the ultimate element of all the things (dharma).

tasmāt nispanda-saukhyam kṣaṇam iha sahajam dharmadhātur

Śrī-kāla-cakra-tantra. MS. p. 105(A).

in the head) where it will produce the Mahāsukha of the nature of Nirvana. The word Bodhicitta sometimes in Vajra-yāna and almost always in Sahaja-yāna is synonymous with the word semen.

This Bodhicitta of the nature of the Mahāsukha, produced through vogic practice, is the ultimate substance of the nature of the five elements (viz., earth, water, fire, air and ether). In a Dohā of Kānhu-pāda this Bodhicitta has been spoken of as the seed of the five elements. In the Hevajra-tantra as well as in the Samputikā (the same lines occurring in both the texts) we find an explanation of how in the process of being produced through yogic practice the Bodhicitta acquires the nature of the five elements, and we have already seen that the presiding deities over these five elements (confused with the five skandhas) are, Vairocana, Aksobhya, Amitābha, Amoghasiddhi and Ratnasambhava, and these five Tathagatas or the Dhyani Buddhas again represent the five Kulas or the families of the esoteric Buddhists. Thus Mahāsukha in the form of the Bodhicitta is the one ultimate reality comprising within it the five families of vajra-yana.

ākāśam piśunam vajram piśunam akāśa-sambhah ekam eva mahac cittam pañca-rupena laksitam pañcasu kulesu' tpannā statrā' nekā sahasrasah tasmād eka-svabhāvo'sau mahāsukhah parama-śāśvatah | pañcatām yāti bhedena rāgādi pañca cetasā || Hevajra-tantra, MS. pp. 37(B)-38(A). Sampuţikā, MS. pp. 47(B)-48(A).

pañca mahābhūā via lai sāmaggie jaia pūhabi ava tea gaindha-vaha gaana sanjaia | Doha No. 7.

² kundureşu bhavet pañca pañca-bhûta-svarûpatah | eka eva mahā-nandam pañcatām yāti bhedanaih bola-kakkola-yogena sparšāt kāthinya-vāsanā] kāthinyasya moha-dharmatvāt moho vairocano matah | bodhicittam dravam yasmat dravam ap-dhatukam matam | āpam aksobhya-rūpatvāt dvesah aksobhya-nāyakah dvayor gharsana-samyogāt tejah (sam)jāyate sadā] rāgah amita-vajrassyāt rāgas tejasi sambhavet kakkolakesu yac cittam tat samirana-rupakam īrsā'moghasiddhih syāt amoghat vāyu-sambhavah | sukham ragam bhavet raktam raktir akasa-laksanam | [sukham raktam bhavet cittam ratnam tu rakti-laksanam Samputikā]

CHAPTER V

THE ELEMENT OF ESOTERIC YOGA

In the previous chapter we have made an attempt at studying, on textual basis, the theological ideas that are associated with the yogic practice of the Tāntric Buddhists. If we sum up the above we shall see that the fundamental standpoint of the Tāntric Buddhists is more or less the same as that of the Hindu Tāntrikas. We hear from the time of the Āranyakas and the Upaniṣads that bliss is the quintessence of Brahman, the ultimate Being. From bliss proceeds the universe, it is sustained in bliss and it again dissolves in bliss.

According to all schools of Tantra, bliss is the nature of the Absolute, which is conceived both positively and negatively. The Absolute is realised by us when we realise our self as perfect bliss. The ultimate aim is, therefore, to attain a state of perfect bliss. In all our ordinary experiences of pleasure we have but a momentary glimpse of the same bliss which constitutes the ultimate nature of our self. But these experiences of pleasure, because of their extremely limited and defiled nature, bind us to a lower plane of life, instead of contributing to our advancement towards self-realisation. Herein comes the question of Sādhanā which may transform even gross sense-pleasure into the boundless serenity of perfect bliss.

In our ordinary life we have the experience of the most intense pleasure in our sex-experiences. Wide is the difference between this sex-pleasure and perfect bliss which is the ultimate nature of the self and the not-self; yet the distinction can be wholly removed by a total change of perspective and process. The sexo-yogic Sādhanā of the Tāntrikas is a Sādhanā for transforming this sex-pleasure into a realisation of infinite bliss in which the self and the world around are lost in

an all-pervading oneness. This immersion of the self and the not-self in the all-pervading oneness of bliss is what is conceived as Nirvāṇa by the Tāntric Buddhists. Let us now see what practical processes of Yoga were enjoined by the Tāntric Buddhists for the realisation of this end.

(i) Body—The Medium for Realising the Truth (A) THE THEORY OF THE PLEXUS

On the practical side, which obviously is the fundamental side of the Tantras, the most important thing is the stress laid on the body as the medium in and through which truth can be realised. The Buddhist Tantrikas, in unison with the other schools of Tantra, hold that the body is the abode of all truth; it is the epitome of the universe or, in other words, it is the microcosm, and as such embodies the truth of the whole universe. Attempt has actually been made in many Tantras to identify the universe completely with the body even by locating the seas, rivers, mountains, etc. in the different parts of the body. Whether we are ready to accept them in toto or not, the fact remains that the importance of the Tantras, as a science of religious methodology, consists in its analysis of the body and the discovery of all tattva in the nervous system and in the plexus and thus making the body, with the whole physiological and biological process, a perfect medium (yantra) for realising the ultimate truth.

Let us now see how the Tantric Buddhists discovered the different tattvas within this corporal structure. This question itself will naturally lead us to the physiological analysis of the nerves and the 'lotuses' and this will also help us a good deal in understanding the yogic process of the Tantric Buddhists.

This analysis of the physical system starts with the spinal cord, widely known as the Merudanda, which is taken to be one bone from the bottom of the back up

to the medulla oblongata. The name Merudanda is significant, and the analogy involved in the name is clearly brought out in the Śri-samputikā, where it has been said that in the form of the skeleton-bone the great mountain Sumeru remains in the body. 1 This spinal column, compared to the mountain, is said to be very profound. It is the cave of the highest truth where all the world vanishes away. 2 The next thing is the theory of the cakras (plexus) or the lotuses as they are also called. According to the Buddhist Tantrikas there are four such plexuses. The first is the lumbar plexus situated in the navel region. The next is the cardiac plexus in the heart. Next is the laryngeal and pharyngeal plexus at the junction of the spinal cord and the medulla oblongata; the last and the most important is the cerebral plexus called the usnīsa-kamala (the lotus of the head). In the Hindu Tantras, however, there are six cakras or plexuses in addition to the Sahasrāra or the highest cerebral plexus.3

¹ sthitah pāda-tale vāyuh bhairavo dhanurā-kṛtih |
sthito'sti kaṭi-deśe tu tri-koṇo-ddharaṇan tathā ||
vartulā-kāra-rūpo hi varuṇas tridale sthitah |
hṛdaye pṛthivī caiva caturasrā samantatah ||
kaṅkāla-daṇḍa-rūpo hi sumerur girirāṭ tathā |
² vara-giri-kandara guhira jagu tahi saala vi tuṭṭai |
Dohākoṣa of Kāṇhu-pāda, Dohā No. 14.

The first is the Mūlādhāra-cakra, or the sacro-coccygeal plexus, situated between the penis and the anus and facing down; it has four petals of red colour with the four letters "v, s, s and s". Next is the Svādhisthāna-cakra or the sacral plexus, near the root of the penis with six petals of the colour of vermilion with the letters "b, bh, m, y, r and l". Next is the Manipura-cakra or the lumbar plexus in the region of the navel; there are ten petals of the colour of the cloud, with the letters "d, dh, n, t, th, d, dh, n, p and ph" on them. After that is the cardiac plexus or the Anāhata-cakra in the heart, with twelve petals of the colour of the Bandhuka-flower (red) with the letters "k, kh, g, gh, n, c, ch, j, jh, ñ, t and th" on them. Next is the laryngeal and pharyngeal plexus (Viśuddha-cakra) at the junction of the spinal cord and the medulla oblongata with sixteen petals of smoky colour with the sixteen vowels on them. Above it is the Ājūā-cakra between the eye-brows; it is the seat of the mind or the centre of all sense knowledge and dream knowledge. There are only two petals of white colour with the letters "h and ks" on them. Above all is the Sahasrāra-cakra in the highest cerebral regions. It is of thousand petals of

Of the six Cakras described in the Hindu Tantras only three are found in the Buddhist Tantras, viz., the plexuses in the navel region, in the heart and in the region just below the neck (i.e., Manipura-cakra, Anāhata and Viśuddha-cakra). The Sahasrāra of the Hindu Tantras corresponds to the Usnīsa-kamala of the Buddhists. But the most remarkable thing in the Buddhists' conception of the Cakras is the location of the three kayas, viz., Nirmana-kaya, Sambhoga-kaya and Dharma-kāya in these Cakras. Thus the lowest Cakra in the navel region represents the lowest kāya, i.e., Nirmāna-kāya: the Cakra in the heart is identified with the Dharma-kāya and the Cakra just below the neck is said to be the Sambhoga-kāya. In the natural order the Cakra in the heart being next to the Cakra of Nirmāna-kāya ought to have been the Sambhoga-kāya and the Cakra below the neck ought to have been the Dharma-kāya; but we do not know why the order has slightly been changed. The Sahaja-kāya is located in the Usnīsa-kamala or the Sahasrāra of the Hindus. It is also called the Mahāsukha-cakra or the Mahāsukhakamala being the seat of great bliss.

In this theory of the Cakras there are some anomalies as regards the number, location and the other descriptions. Let us therefore discuss some of the descriptions of the Cakras found in the different texts. In the Heruka-tantra (thirty-first paṭala) we find that in the Mahāsukha-cakra, situated in the head, there is a lotus of four petals representing the four noble truths or the four categories (catuṣkoṭi); it is pure, of the nature of a circle of enlightenment (bodhi-maṇḍala) as the re-

white colour and is facing downwards. On the petals the fifty letters including the vowels and the consonants are placed in twenty rounds. In the six cakras (excluding the Sahasrāra) there are six presiding goddesses, viz., Dākinī, Rākinī, Lākinī, Kākinī, Sākinī and Hākinī respectively. In the Sahasrāra there is the union of the Siva and Sakti. Vide Ṣaṭ-cakra-nirūpaṇa of Pūrṇānanda (with the commentaries of Kalicaraṇa, Saṅkara and Viśvanātha), edited by Arther Avalon. (Tantric Text. Vol. II). See also,—Siva-saṁhitā, Ch. V.

ceptacle (adhara) and the seed (biia) of all; outside is a lotus of thirty-two petals, and inside it is the letter "ha" in the downward way which is of the nature of the Bodhicitta and the fifteen digits of the moon. Inside is the Yogini of sixteen kalās or digits of the moon, carrying intense bliss with her. By the two sides are lalanā and rasanā of the nature of āli and kāli; and the supreme goddess herself is of the nature of Sahaja-bliss and non-duality. The description seems to be rather significant. The sixteen kalās of the Bodhicitta, doubled in day and night seem to be represented by the thirtytwo petals of the lotus in the head; and lalana and rasanā by the two sides of the Parameśvarī (referring to Avadhūtikā) of the nature of āli and kāli are but the two nerves (corresponding to the Ida and Pingala of the Hindu texts) by the two sides of Avadhūtikā, who is of the nature of Sahaja-bliss and non-duality. Next in the neck is the Sambhoga-cakra with sixteen petals of red colour, within it is the syllable "hum": above it nectar flows down incessantly through a tunnel.2 In the heart is the Dharma-cakra with eight petals: it is a viśva-padma which is the double lotus. one facing upwards and the other facing downwards: within it is the syllable "hum" downwards; a little above there is a white lotus, representing the universe (brahmānda-sadrśā-kāram); within that is pure consciousness (vijñānam) which is ever manifest, all-pervading; it is the receptacle of all, and the source of all

¹ śirasi mahāsukha-cakre catur-dala-padmam śuddham madasthāne sarvasyā'dhāra-rūpatvāt/ bodhi-mandala-svabhāvam/ bījabhūtam/ bāhue dvā-trimšad-dala-padmam/ tan-madhye ha-kāro' dho-mukhah bhavati/ bodhicittā-tmakam ce'ndu-kalā-pañca-daśātmakam/ mahāsukham vahen nityam yoginī sodašī kalā|| lalanārasanā dvayoh pāršve āli-kūli-svarūpinī/ sahajā-nanda-svabhāvañ ca advayam paramešvarī ||

Heruka-tantra, MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 11279) pp. 78(B)-74(A).

² Cf. kanthe sambhoga-cakran tu sodaśa-dala-raktakam/ tanmadhye hum-kāram/tasyo'rddhve ghantikā-randhra-mārgena amrtam sravati nirantaram/

Heruka-tantra, MS. p. 74(A).

self-produced knowledge (svayambhū-jñānā-dhāram), it is the great Lord (parameśvara).¹ In the navel region is a lotus of sixty-four petals of blue colour; within that is the syllable "am" like a dazzling pearl. Slightly below is the kanda which is the receptacle of all the nerves numbering seventy-two thousand in all. From this kanda rise the nerve lalanā of the nature of Prajñā and rasanā of the nature of Upāya; and in the middle is the Goddess in the form of the universe, represented by the syllable "am", she is of the nature of the four 'bodies' and grants all perfection and supreme bliss.²

According to the Sekoddeśa-tīkā, the Uṣṇ̄ṣa-padma possesses four petals, the lotus in the forehead possesses sixteen petals, the lotus in the heart possesses thirty-two petals and the lotus in the navel region possesses sixty-four petals.

In the Sri-samputa we find that the four Cakras are associated with the four Mudras, viz., Karmamudrā, Dharma-mudrā, Mahā-mudrā and Samayamudrā, which are again associated with the goddesses Locanā, Māmakī, Pāndarā and Tārā respectively who again in their turn are the presiding goddesses over the elements (confused with the skandhas, as we have already seen) of earth, water, fire and air; these are again represented by the syllables "e, vam, ma and ya" (Cf. evam mayā śrutam etc.). Thus the Nirmanacakra in the navel region stands for the element of earth represented by the syllable "e" and presided over by the goddess Locana, who is associated with the Karma-mudrā. In this way the elements with their syllabic symbols and presiding deities and the associated Mudras are located in the other three Cakras.

¹ Heruka-tantra, MS. p. 74(A).

² Ibid., pp. 74(A)-74(B).

³ G.O.S. p. 27.

⁴ ekāram pṛthivī jñeyā karma-mudrā tu locanā | mahā-kṛpā maho-pāyā viśva-rūpā viśva-gocarā ||

It may be noted in this connection that according to the Hindu Tantras also we find that the Cakras or the Padmas are associated with different goddesses, viz., Dākinī, Rākinī, Lākinī, Kākinī, Sākinī, and Hākinī, and we also find that the Mūlādhāra-cakra represents earth, Svādhisthāna water, Manipura fire, Anāhata air and Viśuddha ether. Again goddess Locanā in the Nirmāna-cakra represents universal compassion (karunā), Māmakī in the Sambhogā-cakra represents universal brotherhood (maitri) and concentration (pranidhi), Pāndarā represents self-contentment (muditā) and Tārā represents absolute indifference (upeksā).2 These descriptions of the Cakras are also confirmed by the Hevajra-tantra, and the Hevajratantra reminds us in this connection that as the Cakras are four in number, all the tattvas are four. Thus four are the moments, ' viz., vicitra, vipāka, vimarda and

sthitā ņirmāṇa-cakre vai nābhau viśva-paṅkaje ||
vaṁ-kāraṁ tu jalaṁ jñeyaṁ dharma-mudrā tu māmaki ||
maitrī praṇidhi-rūpā tu devi vajra-mukhe sthitā ||
dharma-cakre tu hṛdaye aṣṭa-dalā-mbuje ||
ma-kāraṁ vahnir uddiṣṭo mahā-mudrā tu pāṇḍarā |
muditā-bala-yogena devī padma-kulo-dbhavā ||
sthitā sambhoga-cakre tu kanthe dvy-aṣṭa-dalā-mbuje ||
yā-kāro vāyu-rūpo'stu sarva-kleśa-prabhaṅjakaḥ |
mahā-samaya-mudrā vai devī karma-kulā mukhyā ||
upekṣā jñāna-yogena tārā saṁsāra-tāriṇī ||
mahāsukha-cakre tu dvā-triṁśad-dala-paṅkaje ||
Śrī-samputikā, MS. p. 10(A).

Cj. tatra nābhyabje bhuvah pañca-guṇā gandha-rūpa-rasa-sparśa-śabda-lakṣaṇāh/ hṛdayābje toyasya catvāro guṇā rūpa-rasa-sparśa-śabda-lakṣaṇāh/ kaṇthābje agnes trayo guṇā rasa-sparśa-śabda-lakṣaṇāh/ lalāṭābje maruto dvau guṇau śparśa-śabda-lakṣaṇau/ uṣṇīsābje śūnyasyæ śabda-mātram eko guṇah/ Sekoddeśa-tīkā (G.O.S.) p. 51.

1 Vide Şat-cakra-nirupanam, ed. by A. Avalon.

Cj. Also,—Ānandalaharī quoted in the commentary of the verse No. 8 of the Satcakra-vivrti of Viśvanātha, ed. by A. Avalon.

² See f.n. 4 of the previous page.

* e-kāreņa locanā devī van-kāreņa māmakī smṛtā | ma-kāreņa pāndarā ca yā-kārena ca tarunī |

karmamudrā-dharmamudrā-mahāmudrā-samayamudrāh/ nirmāṇa-cakre padmam catuḥ-saṣṭi-dalam/ dharma-cakre aṣṭa-dalam/ sambhoga-cakre ṣoḍaśa-dalam/ mahāsukhe dvātrimśaddalam/

4 For the interpretation of the 'moments' see Infra.

vilaksana; four are the angas (stages in the methods of the Sādhana), viz., sevā, upa-sevā, sādhana and mahā-sādhana, four are the noble truths (ārya-satya), viz., sorrow, its cause, its suppression and the way of suppressing it; four are the tattvas, viz., the tattva of the self (atma-tattva), the tattva of the Mantras (mantra-tattva), the tattva of the gods (devatā-tattva) and the tattva of knowledge (jñāna-tattva); four are the anandas (states of bliss), viz., ananda, paramananda, viramā-nanda, and sahajā-nanda; four are the Nikāyas, viz., Sthavira-vāda, Sarvāsti-vāda, Sarrvidivāda and Mahāsānghika; sixteen (which is a multiple of four) are the Sankrantis, sixty-four (multiple of four) are the dandas, thirty-two nerves, four praharas and thus all are four (or multiples of four). About the number of the petals of these Cakras or lotuses the Hevaira-tantra holds the same view. As in the Hindu-tantras, here also there is the scheme of arranging the letters on the petals of the lotuses.3 But in some texts the Nirmana-cakra, instead of being located in the navel region, is located in the region near about the sex-organ. Thus it is said in the Hevajra-tantra (the verses being found also in the Samputikā) that four are the kāyas, viz., Dharma, Sambhoga, Nirmana and Mahasukha, of which the first three are situated near the sex-organ, the heart and the neck respectively. Nirmāna-kāya is the region whence all the animate and the inanimate originate and therefore it is located near the sex-organ. The Dharmacakra is of the nature of the consciousness of all the dharmas and is located in the heart. Sambhoga means enjoyment of the six rasas; the Sambhoga-kāya is of the nature of all-existence (as pure delight) and is situated near the neck; the Mahāsukha-kāya is in the

¹ See Infra.

² Hevajra-tantra, MS. pp. 4(A)-4(B).

³ Vide Hevajra-pañjikā or Yoga-ratnamālā. MS. (Cambridge Add. No. 1699) p. 6(B).

head. Then it has been said that Sthavari is in the Nirmāna-cakra wherefrom all the static (sthāvara) originate. What is exactly meant by this Sthavari we are not sure; but it seems from the context that it may refer to the old Sthavira-vada or Thera-vada (the school of the elders). The Sarvāsti-vāda or the Realistic School which originated from a scrutiny into the nature of the dharmas (things) is said to be in the Dharma-cakra; Samvidi-vāda is in the neck, whence are all our perceptions (samvedana); Mahāsamghī is in the Sukha-cakra, and Mahāsukha is in the head.2 The Samvidi-vāda generally refers to the school of Vijāānavāda, but in the commentary of the Hevajra-tantra Samvidi is explained as referring to those who realise high emotions; Mahāsukha being the ultimate unity of all the dharmas, Mahāsukha-cakra is the Mahāsānghī. Again it is explained that the body (kāya) is called the Nikāya which is explained in the commentary as the assemblage of the Bhiksus (Bhiksu-sangha), and the

dharma-citta-svarūpam tu dharma-cakram tu hṛd bhavet | sambhogam bhuñjanam proktam saṇṇām vai rasa-rūpinām | sarva-dharmeṣu dṛḍhatvāt sarvam asti-svarūpakaḥ (not found in the Hevaira-tantra)

kanthe sambhoga-cakram ca mahā-sukham śirasi sthitam | Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 50(A); Samputikā, MS. p. 46(B). For the location of the Nirmāna-cakra in the region of the sex-organ see also Śri-kāla-cakra-tantra, MS. Cambridge, Add. 1364) p. 24(A).

sthāvarī nirmāna-cakre tu nirmānam sthāvaram yataḥ | sarvāsti-vādo dharma-cakre ca dharma-vāda-samudbhavaḥ | samvidī sambhoga-cakre ca kanthe samvedanam yataḥ | mahāsāmghī sukha-cakre ca mahāsukham mastake sthitam | Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 50(B); Sampuţikā, MS. p. 46(B).

* mahattvāt sarva-dharmānām samghatvāt mahāsukha-cakram mahāsāmghī/ ata evam āha/ (masta)ke sirasi sarveṣām upari sthitam/ Hevajra-pañjikā, MS. (Cambridge Add. No. 1699) p. 59(A).

tri-kāyam deha-madhye tu cakra-rūpeņa kathyate |
tri-kāyasya pañca-jñānam cakram mahāsukham matam ||
dharma-sambhoga-nirmāṇam mahāsukham tathaiva ca |
yoni-hrt-kaṇṭha-madhye tu trayaḥ kāyāḥ vyavasthitāḥ ||
aśeṣāṇām tu sattvānām yatro'tpattiḥ pramīyate |
tatra nirmāṇa-kāyaḥ syāt nirmāṇam sthāvaram yataḥ ||
utpadyate nimīyate anena nirmāṇikam matam (not found in
the Samputikā)

udara (literally the belly, but explained in the commentary as the womb of the mother, mātuḥ kukṣiḥ) is called the monastery (vihāra).

(B) THE NERVE SYSTEM

After the discussion on the Cakras the next important thing is the analysis of the nerves. In general the nerves are said to be seventy-two thousand in number (excluding the smaller nerves, i.e., the upa-nādīs, which are innumerable). The Hindu Tantras and the Yogo-panisads in general agree with the Buddhist Tantras as to the total number of the nerves (though controversies are also found). Of these, again, thirtytwo are said to be more important, and of these thirtytwo, again, three are the most important,-these are Lalana, Rasana and Avadhūtī corresponding to Ida, Pingalā and Suşumnā of the Hindu system. Lalanā is the nerve in the left side and Rasanā in the right side. There are pairs of names for them, of which some of the more important are: -Ali and Kāli, e and vain, Gangā and Yamunā, Candra and Sūrya, Dhamana and Camana, Grāhya and Grāhaka, Prajñā and Upāya, etc. About the position of these nerves we find in the Hindu Tantras that inside the passage of the spinal cord (according to some outside the spinal

¹ nikāyam kāyam ityuktam udaram vihāram ucyate |
Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 50(B); Sampuţikā, MS. p. 46(B).
2 For a list of these thirty-two principal nerves, see Śrisampuţikā, p. 8(B).

If all the names given to these two nerves in the left and the right are classified into two groups, the two groups will stand thus:—

i Dakṣina (right)—rasanā, pingalā, sūrya, ravi, agni, prāṇa, camana, kāli, bindu, upāya, yamunā, rakta, palita, sūkṣma, retas, dharma, sthira, para, dyau, bheda, citta, vidyā, rajas, bhāva, puruṣa, śiva, nirmāṇa-kāya and grāhya.

ii Vāma (left)—lalanā, idā, candra, śaśin, soma, apāna, dhamana, āli, nāda, prajñā, gaṅgā, śukra, bali, sthūla, rajas, adharma, asthira, apara, pṛthivī, abheda, acitta, avidyā, tamas, abhāva, prakṛti, śakti, sambhoga-kāya and grāhaka.

Vide Studies in the Tantras-by Dr. P. C. Bagchi, p. 69.

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cord) flows the nerve Susumnā, which in reality is made up of three nerves, viz., citrini of the nature of Sattva-guna (intelligence stuff), vairā of the nature of Rajas (energy), and Susumnā of the nature of Tamas (inertia). All the nerves start from a seat called the Kanda which is situated about one inch above the anus and one inch below the penis. The Susumnā seems to be a sort of duct inside the spinal cord and encases within it the nerve vajrā, which again encases within it the citrini, which again has an aperture called the Brahma-randhra running to the Sahasrāra. The Idā and the Pingala are outside the spinal cord and proceed from the left and the right sides respectively towards the nasal region in a symmetrical course encircling all the Cakras. According to other views, the Ida and the Pingalā proceed from the right and left testicles respectively and pass on to the left and right of the Susumnā in the bent form of a bow. The Idā is also called the moon, of white colour, and the Sakti; the pingalā the sun, of red colour and the purusa; Susumnā is of the nature and of the colour of fire. The three are again said to be the rivers, Yamuna, Sarasvatī and Gangā respectively and the three meet at a point at the root of the penis, which is regarded as the triveni or the juncture of the three rivers. Through these Ida and Pingala blow the vital winds prāna and apāna.

In the Buddhist Tantras we find that the nerve Lalanā or the Ali starts from the neck and enters the navel region from the left side, and from the navel again starts the Rasanā or the Kāli and enters the neck from the right. Within these two and passing through the lotus in the heart (hṛt-saroruha-madhya-gā) is the Avadhūtī, through which flows the Bodhicitta, and this Avadhūtikā gives the Sahaja-bliss, and it itself is often described as the Sahaja-bliss. The most important thing is that the nerves in the left and the right have been identified with Sūnyatā and Karunā

or Prajñā and Upāya, the two cardinal principles of Mahāvāna Buddhism: and the Avadhūtī, as their commingling, is the Bodhicitta or the goddess Nairātmā or the Sahaja-damsel. We have discussed at length the question how these nerves Lalana and Rasanā are identified or associated with Sūnyatā and Karunā, Prajñā and Upāva, Ali and Kāli, etc. In the Ekalla-vīra-canda-mahā-rosana-tantra we find that the Lady (the female counter-part of Candarosana) asks the Lord (Candarosana) how the bliss produced through Prajñā and Upāya can be enjoyed in the body. In reply the Lord says that there is the nerve in the left, named Lalanā which is of the nature of Prajñā and in the right is the nerve Rasanā of the nature of Upāya. Through the commingling of these two nerves in the middle nerve the bliss of Prajño-pāya is to be realised. We should also notice that these three nerves Lalanā, Rasanā and Avadhūtī have also been identified with the three Kāyas, viz., Sambhoga, Nirmāna and Dharma. Again, we have seen that the Lalanā is said to carry the seed and Rasanā the ovum and Avadhūtī to carry Bodhicitta (which is a mixture of the seed and the ovum). Again Prajñā and Upāya mean subjectivity and objectivity or the grāhaka and the grahya, and so these two nerves are also called grāhya-grāhaka.2 About the names Gangā and Yamunā we may also compare the Hindu Tantras where Ida is said to be the river Yumna, Pingala the

¹ Heruka-tantra, MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 11279) p. 8(A), pp. 13(B)-15(A).

Cf. Vajra-vārāhī-kalpa-mahā-tantra, MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 11285) p. 26(B).

² lalanā prajňā-svabhāvena vāma-nādī prakīrtitā | rasanā co'pāya-rūpena dakṣiṇe samavasthitā || Ekalla-vīra-caṇḍa-mahā-roṣaṇa-tantra,MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 9089) p. 15(A).

Cj. Also, -Akulāgama-tantra, quoted in the Studies in the Tantras of Dr. P. C. Bagehi, p. 69.

³ gangā-yamune'ti sandhyayā candrā-bhāsa-sūryā-bhāsau grāhya-grāhakau/ Comm. on Song. No. 14, Caryā-pada (Sāstri's edition).

river Sarasvatī and Suṣumnā the Ganges. The names Lalanā and Rasanā and Dhamana-camana seem to be rather technical.

The most common names for the pair of the nerves in the right and the left are the sun and the moon. These names are found in the Buddhist and the Hindu tantras alike. The nerves in the left and the right are called the Ali and the Kāli which represent the vowels and the consonants, which again in their turn are associated with the night and the day; the night and the day are again associated with the moon and the sun,-and thus the nerves in the left and the right are also called the moon and the sun. The Hatha-yoga-pradipikā speaks of these two nerves as day and night.3 The Sammohana-tantra says that the left nerve is the moon because of its mild nature, whereas the nerve in the right is called the sun because of its fierce nature (raudrā-tmikā). We have also seen that the left nerve is said to carry the seed and the right the ovum; the seed is said to be the Siva-it is the moon,-and the blood is the Sakti,-it is the sun. In the commentary on the Dohākosa of Kānhu-pāda we find that the moon originates from the seed and the sun from the ovum. These two nerves

idāyām yamunā-devī pingalāyām sarasvatī |
susumnāyām vased gangā tāsām yogas tridhā bhavet ||
Şaṭ-cakra-nirūpaṇam, Comm. on the first verse.
Saraha said in a Dohā,—'here (within the body) are the Ganges and the Jumna'.
Saraha's Dohākoṣa, Dohā No. 47.

² Dr. P. C. Bagchi, however, suggests that dhamana may be derived from √dhmā which indicates a forward or outward movement, whereas camana may be derived from √cam which means 'to eat', i.e., taking in.

Vide Studies in the Tantras, p. 65.

* divā na pūjayet lingam rātrau caiva na pūjayet

sarvadā pūjayet lingam divā-rātri-nirodhatah ||
binduh sivo rajah saktir bindur indū rajo ravih |
Gorakṣa-siddhānta-samgraha, ed. by Gopīnātha Kavirāja, p. 41.

⁵ śukrād utpadyate candro raktāt sūrya-samudbhavaḥ | Comm, on Dohākoṣa of Kāṇhu-pāda, MS. p. 38(B).

are also said to carry the vital winds $pr\bar{a}na$ and $ap\bar{a}na$ and the $pr\bar{a}na$ has again been said to be the $R\bar{a}hu$ and the $ap\bar{a}na$ to be the 'fire of time' ($k\bar{a}l\bar{a}gni$).' About the names $\bar{A}li$ and $K\bar{a}li$ we find in the commentary of the $Marmakalik\bar{a}$ -tantra that $\bar{A}li$ and $K\bar{a}li$ represent the vowels and the consonants which are forty-nine in number ('kṣ' being a mere combination of the letters 'k' and 'ṣ' is excluded), and forty-nine are the $V\bar{a}yus$ (winds) and thus $\bar{A}li$ and $K\bar{a}li$ denote the winds and are thus associated with the two nerves in the right and the left. In the Vaiṣṇava Sahajiyā cult of Bengal we find $Id\bar{a}$, $Pingal\bar{a}$ and $Suṣumn\bar{a}$ identified with $V\bar{a}yu$, Pitta and Kapha.

In the Sekoddeśa-tīkā of Nāda-pāda we find mention of five important nerves, presided over by the five Tathagatas. According to it, the left nerve in the upper region, which is the moon, the Lalanā or the Idā, which carries water, is of the nature of the Tathagata Amitābha; the right nerve, which is the sun, the Rasanā, which carries fire, is of the nature of Ratnasambhava; in the middle of the lower region is the nerve (passage?) for stool, carrying earth, and it is of the nature of Vairocana; the left nerve (in the lower region) is the nerve for urine and carries air and is of the nature of Amogha-siddhi; the middle nerve of the upper region is the nerve Rāhu carrying Sūnyatā and is of the nature of Aksobhya; the left nerve below it is the channel for semen; it carries knowledge (jñāna-vāhinī) and is of the nature of the Vajrasattva. *

¹ prāṇato rāhu-niṣpattih kālāgnir apy apānataḥ || Ibid., MS. p. 38(B).

² MS. B.N. Sans. No. 88, p. 9(B).

idā, pingalā, susumnā tina nādī haya|
vāi pitta ślesā bali loke yāre kaya ||
Nāyikā-sādhana- tīkā, quoted in the Post-Chaitanya
Sahajiyā Cult, by M. M. Bose, M.A., p. 71.

⁴ G.O.S., p. 51.

The middle nerve is generally called the Avadhūtī. The word has been explained in the following way,-Avadhūtī is that which destroys through its effulgent nature all the sins. In the commentary of the Caryapada also Avadhūtī is described as that which washes away all the beginningless thought-construction of existence. It has also been said to be Avadhūtī as it removes all the evils of afflictions very easily. 1 It is also called, as we have already said, the goddess Prajñā, or the Nairātmā, the Yogini or the Sahaja-damsel,

(ii) Selection of the Preceptor

Yogic practice is always indispensable for the attainment of the Bodhicitta. It is said in the Pañcakrama that the vows and practices (vrata-caryadikam) are indeed useless without the tattva; but perfect enlightenment again can never be attained without practice. As the fire in the log of wood never manifests itself without friction, so the Bodhi (which is already within) will never be produced without proper practice. In this practice great importance has been attached to the selection of the preceptor,for it is neither by much reading nor by penances, nor by any amount of labour undertaken in innumerable practices that a Sādhaka can get at the truth; it has been repeated over and over again that truth can never be attained without the blessings of the preceptor. Common sense will allow us to understand that where

¹ avam pāpam dhuvam (?) dhvastam prabhāsvara-rūpatvāt anaye'ty avadhūtī/

Comm. on the Dohākosa of Kāṇhu-pāda (Dohā No. 4),
MS., No. B. N. Sans. 47, p. 39(B).

avadhūtī śabda-sandhyayā anādi-bhāva-vikalpañ ca dhūtvā prakrti-pariśuddhā-vadhūtī-rūpena, etc.

Comm. on Song No. 2. ² avahelayā anābhogena kleśā-di-pāpam dhūnoti ity avadhūtī| Comm. on the Dohākoşa (Dohā No. 4) of Kānhu-pāda (ed. by MM. H. P. Sāstri).

* yathā'gnir dāru-garbhastho no'ttisthen manthanād vinā |

tatha'bhyasad vina bodhi(r) jayate ne'ha janmani | MS. p. 24(B).

there is anything practical to be performed, there naturally comes the question of adopting a proper guide,-and Indian religions, from the very beginning in the Vedic time down to the modern era, invariably involve some kind of practice either ceremonial and ritualistic or yogic; hence is the importance of the Guru. The Guru is very often regarded higher than God himself, for God is something absolutely fictitious to a man unless he has been blessed by the practical instruction of the Guru which enables a man to realise what God or the ultimate reality is. The Tantras, as we have seen, lay the greatest emphasis on the practical aspect of religion and the practices enjoined in the Tantras are very secret and complex,-there is the chance of physical or mental aberration at every step. As on the one hand, these practices, when properly and systematically carried out, will lead a man to the highest spiritual elevation through the realisation of the truth; on the other hand, they may lead a man to the darkest abyss of hell, if these are not very cautiously and methodically carried out with the directions of the experienced Guru. Because of this difficulty in carrying out these practices and because of the great dangers they may very easily lead to, these practices have always been kept most secret and there is no other way to learn them than the blessings of the wellexperienced Guru. It is for this reason that we find in most of the Tantras chapters devoted to the selection of a good preceptor and a good disciple. Even the Caryā-songs and the Dohās of the Siddhā-cāryas refer to this importance of the Guru every now and then. This Guru-vāda in India, current from a very old time and emphasised in the Tantric ages, has also flowed on in all the minor religious sects of India.

After securing a suitable preceptor and also a suitable Prajñā (woman) the Yogin should approach the reverend Guru and propitiate him by worship, hymns, etc. Then follows the ceremony of Abhişeka or initia-

tion into the cult. This Abhiseka is a very old custom of initiation with religious rites and ceremonies and it is also found in early Buddhism in the initiation to the vow of pabbajjā (pravrajyā, literally, going out, i.e., the vow of renunciation) and the initiation to upasampadā (literally, arrival, i.e., the entry into the circle of the fully accredited members of the Sangha or monastery). Even now this ceremony of Abhiseka is current in all schools of Buddhism in all the countries. This Abhişeka is held to be indispensable for the Sādhana in esoteric Buddhism. It is said that the Yogin who wishes to attain the Yogihood without proper initiation only darts a blow to the sky with fists and drinks the water of mirage. ' The Abhiseka in the secret cult is generally known as the Vajrā-bhişeka.2 In some texts we find Mantras for four kinds of Abhiseka, viz., Kalasā-bhiseka (i.e., initiation by outward purification by the water of the jar, etc.), Guhyā-bhişeka (initiation into the secret cult), Prajñā-bhiseka (initiation to perfect wisdom) and Vajrā-bhiseka (i.e., initiation to the adamantine truth). In the Sekatā-nvaya-samgraha we find that this Kalasā-bhiseka comprises within it six Abhişekas, viz., initiation with Udaka (water), Mukuta (a crown), Vajra (the thunder), Ghantā (the bell), Nāma (name) and Ācārya (the preceptor), and these six Abhisekas are of the nature of the six Tathāgatas. 4 Thus the initiation with water is of the nature of ideal knowledge, and so of Aksobhyas; the initiation with the crown is of the nature of equalising know-

¹ nā'bhişikto hi yo yogi yogitvam abhivānchati | hanyate muştinā'kāśam pivet ca mṛga-tṛṣṇikām ||

Quoted in the Kriyā-samgraha-pañjikā, MS. p. 5(A).

For this Abhiseka, see Prajño-pāya-viniścaya-siddhi, Ch. V,
Jñāna-siddhi, Ch. XVII; Sampuţikā, first paţala of the
second Kalpa, etc.

Vide the Ch. on Abhişeka in the Kriyā-samgraha-panjikā, MS. pp. 4(A)-6(B); Sekatā-nvaya-samgraha, collected in the Advaya-vajra-samgraha (G.O.S.), Hevajra-tantra, Mandala-krama; Šekoddeša-ţikā (G.O.S.).

Vide Śri-cakra-sambhāra-tantra.
 Advaya-vajra-samgraha, pp. 36-37.

ledge (samatā jñāna), and so is of the nature of Ratnasambhava: initiation with the thunder is of the nature of discriminative knowledge and represents Amitābha; the initiation with the bell is of the nature of the performance of duties and so represents Amogha-siddhi: the initiation with a name is of the nature of the knowledge of the perfectly pure dharma-dhātu and represents Vairocana and the initiation by the Acarya is of the nature of the adamantine knowledge (vajraiñāna). But in general Kalasā-bhiseka seems to be the rite of initiation by pouring the water of the jar. Next is the Guhyā-bhiseka or the initiation into the secret cult. Here the preceptor explains all the secret processes of the vogic sādhana by which Bodhicitta should be produced through the union of the Upaya and the Prajña, how its downward tendency should be checked, how it should be sent upward to the Usnisakamala and how Mahāsukha of the nature of nirvāna is to be attained. After the Guhyā-bhiseka the preceptor explains to the disciples the void nature of the self (pudgala) as well as of all the objects (dharma), and also how this yogic process leads a man to the realisation of that perfect knowledge (prajñā). This part is, therefore, called the Prajnā-bhiseka or the Prajñā-jñānā-bhiseka. But as Vajra is the ultimate adamantine reality and the ultimate principle of purity, the initiation ends with an initiation into the Vajraiñāna called the Vajra-jñānā-bhiseka.

After initiation the Yogin with his Mudrā is led to the Maṇḍala or the mystic circle and is then permitted to perform the Yoga in company of the Mudrā or the Prajñā. In some texts, however, the intiation is performed within the Mandala.

For the Abhişekas also see Vajra-vali-nāma-maṇdala-pañjikā,
 MS. R.A.S.B., No. 18855, pp. 80(A)—81(A) and 98(A)—100(A).
 For details see Hevajra-tantra; also Sekoddeśa-ţikā (G.O.S.),

² For details see Hevajra-tantra; also Sekoddeśa-ţīkā (G.O.S.), p. 25. The Prajñā here is called Mudrā as she is instrumental to the attainment of bliss (mudam sukha-viśeṣam ratim dadātī'ti mudrā—Sekoddeśa-ţīkā, p. 56).

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In some texts again we find other preparatory rites of killing or driving away the disturbing ghosts and spirits and all other evils of the ten quarters through the help of Mantras and other practices, and of placing the ten Buddhas in the ten quarters for safety in Yoga. We have already seen that in this yogasādhana the Yogin has to be a god,-he must realise himself as the god or the Supreme Lord Buddha, and the woman to be united with, must be realised to be nothing but the embodiment of Prajñā or Śūnyatāknowledge. For this realisation the Yogin places the five Tathagatas and their female counter-parts with their respective bija-mantras in the different parts of the body (both of himself and of the Mudra), and during all these processes he should meditate and recite that he is of the nature of adamantine knowledge.1

(iii) The Production of Bodhicitta and Its Regulation

After all these preparatory rites follows the esoteric practice, which is strictly prohibited to be taken in the ordinary sense; it should be performed only as a process of Yoga for the attainment of the Bodhicitta or for the realisation of the ultimate Sahajanature of the self and the dharmas.2 Through the vogic union of the Prajñā and the Upāya, the Bodhicitta is produced within, and after it is produced its flow must be checked in the navel region which is the Manipura-cakra or the Nirmana-kaya-cakra. It is

¹ Cf. The Pindi-krama of Pañca-krama; Jvālā-valī-vajra-mālātantra, MS. pp. 14(A)-14(B); Citta-visuddhi-prakarana, Verses 76-78.

Cj.,-manthayet kamalā-mbhodhim sahajā-mṛta-kānkṣayā/

Jvālā-valī-vajra-mālā-tantra, MS. p. 18(B).

This line is quoted in the Marmakalikā-tantra as belonging to the Guhya-vajra-virāsinī-sādhanā, MS. (B.N. Sans. No. 83) p. 26(A). ³ Vide Śrī-kāla-cakra-tantra, MS. (Cambridge, Add. No. 1864),

Cj. Comm. on Carya-pada No.2, pithake vajra-manau patat dharanam na yāti.

held that as long as the Bodhicitta remains restless, it binds us to the world of existence and non-existence; but when its movement is stopped once for ever in the lotus in the head, it produces the state of supreme bliss which is of the nature of liberation. Thus this Bodhicitta has got two aspects; in the ordinary restless aspect it is called the samvrta and in the motionless aspect of intense bliss it is called the vivrta or the pāramārthika. It is said in the Hevajra-tantra,-"One should produce Bodhicitta in the form of both vivrta and samvrta; the samvrta is like a Kunda flower (i.e., white in its physical form), and the vivrta is of the form of bliss." 1 We have seen that the Madhyamikas believe in two aspects of the reality, the samortisatya, i.e., the phenomenal or the provisional truth and the pāramārthika-satya which is the ultimate truth (corresponding to the vyāvahārika and pāramārthika of the Vedantists). These twofold aspects of the Bodhicitta, the physical or the phenomenal aspect (in the form of semen virile) being the samurta and the ultimate aspect (in the form of incorporeal all-pervading Mahāsukha as the ultimate nature of the dharmas) being the pāramārthika or the vivrta seems to be drawn in analogy with the twofold conception of the

vajra-mani-sikhara-susire bodhicittam vandhayati/ Comm. on Caryā-pada, No. 3.

maņi-kule bahia odiāne sagāa | Song No. 4.

mani-mulad urddhvam gatva gatva mahasukha-cakre antar-

bhavati | Comm. on Song No. 4. mani-mūla-dvāra-nirodham kartavyam | Ibid.

kacchika-maṇi-mūlam gatam, tad eva bodhicittam sahajānandena vidhṛtam sad vaimalyam cakro-ddeśena pravāham kuru/ Comm. on Song No. 13.

See also Pañca-krama of Ghaṇṭāpāda quoted in the Subhāṣita-saṅgraha of Bendall, p. 72; Kriyā-saṅgraha-pañjikā, MS. p. 75(A); Marma-kalikā-tantra, MS. p. 4(B).

bodhicittam utpādayet vaivṛtti-samvṛtti-rūpakam | samvṛtam kunda-samkāśam vivṛtam sukha-rūpiṇam | Hevaira-tantra, MS. pp. 47(B)—48(A).

Cf. Also Heruka-tantra, MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 11279) p. 74(A).

truth of the Mādhyamikas. For the attainment of the Mahāsukha the flow of Bodhicitta must be arrested. It is said that as long as the Yogin does not discharge Bodhicitta, he enjoys intense and unruffled bliss arising from the joyous sensations; but if Bodhicitta, which is the cause of all perfection, flows down, it cannot be made to rise through the middle nerve and no perfection is attained.

How then to check the downward flow of the Bodhicitta? For this purpose Hatha-yoga is resorted

¹ In the Hevajra-tantra it is clearly explained how to produce the gross Bodhicitta through the physical process and how to turn it to the Vivṛta form through the yogic process. Pleasure may also be realised through the discharge of the Bodhicitta, but that has unreservedly been condemned by all the Buddhist Tāntrikas; and it has been said that instead of delivering a man it binds him to the realm of gross sense-pleasure. It is, therefore, that we find in all the texts repeated warnings not to discharge the Bodhicitta; if it be discharged, the Mahāsukha is never realised and if the Mahāsukha be not realised, the ultimate Sahaja-nature can never be realised, and if the ultimate nature be not realised, a man is not liberated from the world of illusion. MS. pp. 48(A)—49(A).

than bliss (arising from the motionless Bodhicitta)." Again, "Discharge is the progenitor of detachment (virāga) and from detachment arises sorrow, and from sorrow is the loss of the vital element and

from the loss of the element comes death".

na virāgā(t) param pāpam puņyam na sukhatah param |
tathā ca,—cyutir virāga-sambhūtir virāgād duḥkha-sambhavaḥ |
duḥkhād dhātu-kṣayam pumsām kṣayāt mṛtyuh prajāyate ||
Quoted in the Comm. on the Marma-kalikā-tantra, MS.
p. 5(A).

Also quoted in the Comm. on the Dohākoşa of Kāṇhu-pāda as belonging to the Ādi-buddha, MS. (B.N. Sans. No. 47) p. 49(B). In the Sekoddeśa we find that the Sahaja-form of the Lord

is nothing but the motionless state of the fluid.

yāvan na(o, sic.) patati prabhāsvaramayah sītā-mśu-dhārā-dravo devī-padma-dalo-dare samarasī-bhūto jinānām gaṇaih | sphurad (sic. sphurjjad) vajra-śikhā-gratah karuṇayā bhinnam jagat-kāranam

garjjadd hi karunā-balasya sahajam jānihi rūpam vibhoh ||
Quoted in the Comm. of the Caryā-pada, Song No. 8.
Śrī-kāla-cakra definitely declares that salvation is impossible through the discharge,—so the Yogins should always shun worldly

pleasure.
bindor mokse kva mokso gata-parama-sukhe yoginām janma-bīje
tasmāt samsāra-saukhyam kṣaṇamiha yatibhih sarvadā varjanīyam ||

MS. Ch. V. (jñāna-patala), Verse 126.

to. In the commentary of the Marma-kalikā-tantra, we find that the flow of the Bodhicitta is to be checked by the help of Ṣaḍaṅga-yoga or the Yoga with six parts; these are: abstraction (pratyāhāra), meditation (dhyāna), restraint of the breath (prāṇāyāma), attention (dhāraṇā), remembrance (anusmṛti) and final absorption (samādhi).

In the Sri-guhya-samāja (Ch. XVIII) we find detailed description of these six parts of Yoga, and these descriptions are again fully commented on in the Sekoddeśa-tīkā of Nado-pāda. The first part of Yoga, viz., pratyāhāra means the restraint of the ten senses from their respective objects through a process of abstraction. Through pratyāhāra the Sādhaka develops an aversion to all physical forms and perception, and he further develops an insight whereby he can view all objects of the world from the Sūnyatā perspective. The second part, viz., dhyāna means viewing the pañca-kāmas (five objects of desire) as of the nature of the five Buddhas. The five objects of desire stand here for all the objects of the world (sarve bhāvāh sthira-calā-tmakāh) and the five Buddhas stand for Buddha in general. Dhyana here then means meditating on all existence as of the nature of Buddha in the ultimate essence. This dhyana is again of five kinds, viz., vitarka, vicāra, prīti, sukha and ekāgratā. Vitarka means guhya-trayo-daya, i.e., the sudden flash in the citta of a general ideal reflection (caitya-sthūlākārena) of the three elements of three times. Vicāra means meditating on the specific nature of objects as of the nature of perfect enlightenment. Priti means an agreeable state of mind resulting from the taking in of the objects; sukha means the delight resulting

¹ pratyāhāras tathā dhyānam prānāyāmo'tha dhāraṇā | anusmṛtih samādhiś ca sad-ango yoga ucyate ||

Srī-guhya-samāja-tantra (G.O.S.), Ch. XVIII, p. 163. Cj. Maitrāyanīya Upanisad (Cowell's Edition, Ch. VI, p. 129) where the six Angas are described as Pratyāhāra, Dhyāna, Prāṇāyāma, Dhāraṇā, Tarka (self-examination) and Samādhi.

from such meditation; ekāgratā means the fixing of the mind in the Śūnyatā, i.e., the one-pointed state of mind which remains steady in the realisation of the Śūnyatā-nature of all objects.

The third part of Yoga is prānāyāma, which means the control and arrest of the vital wind (pranavāuu). This prāna-vāuu is of the nature of the five elements (pañca-bhūta) as well as the five Buddhas. The wind that flows through the left nostril (which is lalana) represents the principle of the five skandhas (which are identified with the pañca-bhūtas) and the wind flowing through the right nostril (which is rasanā) represents the principle of the five Buddhas. These two courses of the vital wind must be united and made into a subtle body, as it were, and made flow through the middle nerve passing through the lotuses in the navel, heart, neck and the forehead. Then this vital wind must be made steady in the lotus between the two eve-brows. This is what is meant by prānāyāma.

This process of prānāyāma is regarded as very important in the esoteric Yoga of the Buddhists and is variously described in different texts. We have seen before that in the Pañca-krama the vital wind has been described as the vehicle (vahana) for our defiled nature (prakrti) and this vāyu is described as the root of all the principles of defilement and as such the rootcause of the samsāra or the cycle of birth and death. In the Vajra-jāpa-krama of the Pañca-krama we find that mantra-tattva is nothing but the vaya-tattva (the science of the vital wind). This vāyu-tattva comprises within it the five tattvas (which when combined together constitutes the ultimate truth); these are the tattvas of the five Dhyani-Buddhas and, therefore, of the five skandhas. It is said in the text Vaira-mālā that from the air of the right nostril issues forth a lustre of red colour; it is the circle of fire and Padma-

nātha is the presiding deity here; from the left issues forth the lustre of deep green colour in an aerial circle and Karma-nātha is the deity here; the lustre issuing forth from both the nostrils is of yellow colour and it is said to be the circle of Indra and presided over by Ratna-nātha. The steady wind within, of the colour of the white Kunda flower, or the moon, is the circle of Varuna, prescribed over by Vajra-nātha, and the wind pervading the whole physical system and prompting all the active tendencies is of the nature of Vairocana.1 These five kinds of lustre of the nature of the five Buddhas are to be thought of in the region between the two brows, i.e., at the starting point of the nose (nāsāgra) and they are to be thought of united into the form of a mustard seed (sarsapa); in this mustard seed, however, the whole universe of the static and the dynamic should be meditated on,-it is also to be thought of as the place of all wisdom-of all the mysteries of knowledge.2 This mustard seed, however, represents the Lord himself of the nature of the five wisdoms.3 This small figure of the form of the mustard seed representing the five kinds of winds of the nature of the five elements and the five kinds of wisdom, is

daksinād vinirgato raśmir hutabhun-mandalañ ca tat | rakta-varnam idam vyaktam padma-nātho'tra devatā | vāmād vinirgato raśmir vāyu-mandala-saminitah | harit-syāma-sankāśah karma-nātho'tra devatā | dvābhyām vinirgato raśmih pīta-varno mahādyutih | mahendra-mandalañ caitad ratna-(nā)tho'tra devatā | stabdho manda-pracaras tu sita-kunde-ndu-sannibhah | mandalam varunam caitad vajra-nātho'tra devatā | sarva-dehā-nugo vāyuh sarva-ceṣtā-pravartakah | vairocana-svabhāvo'sau mṛtakāyād viniscaret ||

Quoted in the Pañca-krama, MS. p. 16(B).

nāsā-gre sarṣapaṁ cintet sarṣape sa-carā-caram |
bhāvayet jñāna-padaṁ ramyaṁ rahasyaṁ jñāna-kalpitam ||
pañca-varṇaṁ mahā-ratnaṁ sarṣapa-sthūla-mātrakam |
nāsikā-gre prayatnena bhāvayed yogataḥ sadā ||

Ibid., MS. p. 16(A).

pañca-jñānamayam tattvam sarṣapa-sthūla-mātrakam |
tasya madhye sthito devo hy avyakto vyakta-rūpavān |
Caturdevi-pariprechā-vyākhyā-tantra, quoted in the
Pañca-krama, MS. p. 16(A).

meditated on in the region of nāsāgra and itself is called prāṇāyāma.1 In many places of the Śri-Samāja we find mention of this theory of the five kinds of winds of the nature of the five elements and the five jnanas, which are to be meditated on in the region between the brows in the form of the mustard seed.2 It may be noted in this connection that in the Hindu texts also we find five kinds of vital wind, viz., prāna, apāna, samāna, vyāna and udāna and in the Maitrāyanī Upanisad we find that before the world of the animate was created Prajapati (the creator of all beings) looked on his creation and found all around that his objects of creation were stones, mindless, lifeless, stark as stocks; he then reflected,-"I will enter within", but as one, he could not animate them and, therefore, divided himself in five and hence he is named by five names, viz., prāna, apāna, samāna, vyāna and udāna.3 We also find in this connection that the five senses are but the five lustres from within.4

The japa of the Mantras, according to the Pañca-krama, does not mean the mere chanting or the muttering of the Mantra; it is, as it is with the school of Mantra-yoga, a yogic process for controlling the vital wind with the help of the Mantras. In Mantra-yoga some Mantras (as for example 'om' containing within it the parts 'a', 'u' and 'm') are divided conveniently into three parts, and these three parts are associated with the three parts of the process of prāṇā-yāma, viz., Pūraka, Kumbhaka and Recaka. Thus here in the Pañca-krama the japa-mantra is om āḥ hum and to mutter them in the yogic process according to

4 Ibid., pp. 34-35.

pañca-jñānamayam śvāsam pañca-bhūta-svabhāvakam |
niścarya padma-nāsā-gre piṇḍa-rūpena kalpayet ||
pañca-varṇam mahā-ratnam prāṇāyāmam iti smṛtam |
sva-mantram hṛdaye dhyātvā cittam bindu-gatam nyāsed ||
Samājo-ttara quoted in the Pañca-krama, MS. p. 16(A).

Śri-guhya-samāja, (G.O.S.) pp. 15, 25.
 Ch. II, Ed. by E. B. Cowell, pp. 26-28.

their meaning is called vajra-jāpa.1 What is then the meaning of this Mantra om ah hum? It is said, the 'om' creates all beings, 'āh' preserves them and 'hum' destructs them ; in Yoga, therefore, 'om' will mean the inhalation, 'āh' the suspension and 'hum' the exhalation. Thus the vajra-jāpa seems to be nothing but prānāyāma associated with the Mantra for the control of the vital wind and the Pañca-krama-tippani makes it very clear that the vajra-jāpa is nothing but the process for controlling the vital wind and to control the vital wind is to control the mind, and to control the mind and to destroy it is to realise the essencelessness of the dharmas.3 In the commentary of the Caryā-padas we find occasional mention of this vajrajāpa and it seems from the references that vajra-jāpa was regarded as indispensable for the Yoga for the attainment of the Anuttara-samādhi or the ultimate state of extinction or rather absorption in the Mahāsukha. Some other well-known Mantras of Buddhism were also thus given some kind of yogic interpretation. Of these an important Mantra is, om manipadme hum. Padma is well-known from the Upanisadic period as the symbol of the generative energy and as such it often means female or the female organ; mani or diamond suggests its analogy with the masculine element,-and thus the Mantra om manipadme hum may be interpreted as symbolising the sexo-yogic practice of Tantric Buddhism, "

In a song of Bhusuka-pāda this vital wind, compared to a mouse, has itself been spoken of as citta and

om āḥ hum arthā-nugama-jāpena niḥsvabhāvena cāruṇā | vicāraṇāt pañca-buddhebhyo vajra-jāpaḥ sa ucyate || Pañca-krama, MS. p. 17(A).

om-kārah samsrjet sattvān buddha-rūpā-gra-kalpitān hum-kārah samharet sattvān āh-kārah sthāpako bhavet pravešaš ca sthitis caiva vyutthānañ ca kramena ca japet mantram abhinnā-ngam prajno-pāya-pade sthitah libid., MS. p. 18(A).

³ MS. (BN. Sans. Nos. 65, 66) p. 38(A).

⁴ See J.R.A.S., 1906. See also Hasting's Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics, p. 555.

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it has emphatically been declared that this mouse is the cause of all our existence,-the duty of the Yogin is to kill this mouse with instructions from the preceptor. In another song of Kānhu-pāda we find it put in an enigmatic metaphor, 'Kanhu has killed the mother-inlaw and the sister-in-laws of the house and killing the mother also has become the Kāpāli'. The mother-inlaw (sasu) here represents the vital wind of the nature of the mind and the sister-in-law (nananda) represents the wind that is responsible for the sense-perceptions of sight, etc. (caksur-indriy-ādi-vijñāna-vātam, Comm.) and the mother (māa) represents the world illusion (māyā), and in the Pañca-krama the vital wind has been spoken of as the māyā which is responsible for the world-illusion. 2

In the Dohākoşas we find frequent references to this arrest of the vital wind and of the control of the mind therewith. Thus it is said, 'He who holds fast his vital wind and does not allow the mind to move a bit, casts away the fire of time very easily. Saraha says,-rub the two nerves, the sun and the moon, into one.' 4 Again it is said, - Leave off this horse of the mind and the vital wind; he who does it is firmly established in the Sahaja-nature.' With the instruction of the preceptor arrest the vital wind through the constant arrest of mind. When this vital wind is made steady what can time or death do of the Yogin?" Kānhu-pāda also says in a Dohā,—"If the door for the going in of the vital wind be firmly locked up and if in the abyss of darkness the Bodhi-mind be kept as the light, then the jewel of Jina touches the void above and attains nirvana through the enjoyment of life in the world."

¹ Song No. 21. 2 Song No. 11.

³ Pañca-krama, Svādhisthāna-krama, p. 27(A).

^{*} Collection of Dohās of Saraha (Dr. P. C. Bagehi's Edition).

Dohākosa of Saraha, Dohā No. 45.

^{*} Ibid., No. 66.

Dohākosa of Kānhu-pāda, Dohā No. 22.

The fifth part of the Yoga is dhāraṇā; in this stage all the functions of the senses are stopped and the jewel of vital wind is held fast in the lotus between the eyebrows. This dhāraṇā leads to the realisation of five omens or signs. The first sign is like a mirage, the second is like smoke, the third is like the fire-fly, the fourth like a bright light and the fifth is effulgent like the cloudless sky.

The next part of Yoga, anusmṛti, is the remembrance of the realisation of the previous stages. The next part, Samādhi, is described as the accumulation of and the meditation on all the existence in the form of a circular mass (bimba) produced through Prajñā and Upāya and the quick attainment of knowledge through that meditation. Through pratyāhāra the Yogin is established in all the Mantras, through dhyāna he attains the fivefold transcendental or supernatural knowledge or faculty (pañcā-bhijňatva)²; through prāṇāyāma is attained Bodhisattvahood, through the strength of dhāraṇā Vajrasattvahood; and through anusmṛti the Sādhaka enters the circle of effulgence (prabhā-maṇḍala) and through samādhi he becomes free from all the veils (āvaraṇa).

The flow of Bodhicitta is to be arrested through some process of Hatha-yoga called mudrā, bandha and āsana and the prāṇāyāma (the process of breath-control); and it is held that through the proper practice of these processes the flow of Bodhicitta can be controlled by the Yogin under all circumstances.

¹ For a detailed study of these signs see Obscure Religious Cults of the present writer.

The five Abhijāās are:—(1) Iddhi-vidhā or Iddhi-ppabheda (the different magical powers), (ii) Dibba-sotam (divine ear), (iii) Parassa Cetopariyāāanam, or Paracitta-vijānanam (knowledge of the thoughts of others), (iv) Pubbenivāsā-nussatiāānam (knowledge of the former existences), (v) Dibba-cakkhu (the divine eye). A sixth is also often added, viz., Āsava-kkhaya-kara-āānam (the knowledge which causes the destruction of human passions).

³ In these mudrās and bandhas the main thing seems to be the acquisition of the capacity for the contraction and expansion of some of the muscles and nerves associated with the root of the

Now after the Bodhicitta is produced and its downward flow arrested, the Bodhicitta must march upward to reach the final stage in the *Uṣṇṣṣa-kamala*. With this raising of the Bodhicitta from the navel to the lotus in the cerebrum through the different *Cakras* we may compare the Mahāyāna conception of the

penis as well as the anus and with this control of the muscles and the nerves is often associated the question of breath-control. Among these mudrās the most important seem to be the Vajrolī, Sahajolī and Amorolī described in details in the Haṭhayoga-pradīpikā. Among the other mudrās the Khecarī-mudrā, the Mahā-mudrā, the Aśvinī-mudrā, the Vajronī-mudrā (Gheranḍa-samhitā, 3/45-47), the Yoni-mudrā, etc., are very important. In the description of these mudrās and bandhas we find it repeatedly declared that if these mudrās are rightly practised, the flow of semen can be checked at any stage under any condition. The bandhas are also the contraction and tying up, as it were, of many of the muscles and nerves. Among them the Uḍḍiyāna-bandha, the Jālandhara-bandha, the Mūla-bandha, the Mahā-bandha, the Mahā-vedha, etc. are described to be very effective for the purpose.

But in this yogic practice of the arrest of the downward flow of semen and of giving it an upward flow to make it reach the Usnīsa-kamala and make it motionless there the control of the different kinds of the vital wind is absolutely necessary. There is a very close relation between the motion of semen, the vital wind and the citta and the relation is so intimate that the arrest of any one of them will stop the course of the other two. It has been said that the bindu will attain exactly the same state as the vital wind, and both of them move and stop in perfect correspondence (Amrtasiddhi). So, for the purpose of arresting the flow of the Bodhicitta the vital wind must also be checked. For all these purposes the two nerves in the right and the left require to be purified. For this purification of the Nāḍis the yogin should first take in the vital breath (prana) through the moon (i.e., the Ida or the nerve in the left) and after the suspension of the breath within for some time (i.e., after Kumbhaka) should exhale the breath through the sun (i.e., Pingala or the nerve in the right); then again he should inhale the breath through the sun and after Kumbhaka exhale it through the moon; the nerves are sure to be purified through this process. After this the yogin should practise to suspend the vital breath within and instead of regulating it either in the left or in the right nerve should try to regulate it along the middle nerve. In the Heruka-tantra we find the same process described for the purification of the nerves as well as for the attainment of full control over breath (5th patala). The most important of the processes for the arrest of the flow of Bodhicitta is the Kumbhaka or the suspension of the vital wind, both Prana and Apana. Prana is the wind that moves upward, and Apana is the wind that moves downward, and generally the disturbed semen within the body is discharged through the downward motion of Apāna; but if this march of the Bodhicitta through the ten stages after its production. Again we find in the Hindu Tantras that the world-force (kula-kuṇḍalinī śakti), residing in the lowest Cakra, coiled like a serpent, is to be raised from its latency and taken to the Sahasrāra through the various Cakras with the help of yogic processes. In the Tāntric Buddhist school also there is the question of raising the Sakti in connection with raising the Bodhicitta. It is said that when the Bodhicitta is produced in the navel region the goddess Caṇḍālī is also awakened, as it were, in the Nirmāṇa-cakra. When she is awakened the moon situated in the forehead begins to pour nectar and this nectar rejuvenates

Apāna is arrested, the Bodhicitta cannot go downward, and if Prāṇa is arrested, it cannot go upward, and, therefore, when both are arrested or made passive, it can neither go upward nor go downward, but becomes motionless like the motionless air within.

Cf. aha na gamai ūha na jāi |
beņi-rahia tasu ņiccala thāi ||
bhaṇai kāṇha maṇa kahavi na phuttai |
niccala pavaṇa ghariṇī ghare vaṭṭai ||
Dohākoṣa of Kāṇhu-pāda, Dohā No. 13.

Cf. Also the Comm.:—adha na gacchaty apāna-vāyor nirodhāt, ūrddhvam na gacchati prāṇa-vāyor nirodhāt | dvābhyām ūrddhvā-dhaḥ prāṇā-pānābhyām rahitam parityaktam tasya tathā-rūpena bodhicittam nirasya tisthatī'ti ||

In the commentary of the Marma-kalikā-tantra we find that the flow of the Bodhicitta must be checked by Anga-nyāsa and Kara-nyāsa. The anga is explained as the Apana wind (MS. p. 23A) and the kara is explained as the Prāṇa wind (kam mahāsukha-cakra-rati gṛhṇātī'ti karaḥ prāṇa-vāyuḥ, p. 24A) and thus Anga-nyāsa and Kara-nyāsa mean the regulation of the Prāna and the Apāna winds. In a song of Kukkuri-pāda we find,—"The milk of the two teats cannot be (i.e., is very difficult to be) held in the milk-pot; the tamarind of the tree is eaten up by the crocodile" (Song No. 2). The implication seems to be that the novice yogins cannot arrest the flow of Bodhicitta in the navel region by a full control over the two nerves (which are compared to the teats of the cow, and the Manipura in the navel being compared to the milk-pot). But expert yogins control Bodhicitta (which is compared to the tamarind, the body being the tree) with the help of the suspension of the vital breath or Kumbhaka (which is said to be the Kumbhīra). Again it is said, "The mother-in-law has fallen asleep and the daughter-in-law awakes." (Song No. 2). Here also the motherin-law (sasurā) represents the vital wind śvāsa and when she is asleep, i.e., when the vital wind is completely suspended, the daughterin-law (vahudī), representing the Avadhūtikā, awakes.

and transubstantiates the body of the Yogin. This goddess Caṇḍālī, variously known as Pombī, Yoginī, Sahaja-sundarī, Nairātmā (or Nairāmaṇī) is variously described in various Tantras, Dohās and songs. In the process of rising from the lowest Cakra to the highest she transforms herself variously, causing new realisations to the Sādhaka. From all that is said about her nature it seems that she is of the nature of a strong internal perception—something like a force of the nature of intense bliss produced through the esoteric yogic practice. As the nature of this Sakti, as conceived in the Buddhist Tantras, Dohās and songs has been studied in detail by the present writer in another work, he does not propose to repeat the point here.

Another important point, noticeable in this connection, is the regulation of the Bodhicitta through the middle path. We have seen that the philosophical schools within Mahāyāna were all, or at least professed to be, followers of the middle path inasmuch as all of them declared that the final state is neither a state of bhava nor a state of nirvāna,-but it transcends or synthesises both. This Mahayanic principle has been adopted by the Tantric Buddhists in their practical Yoga in regulating the Bodhicitta through the middle path (i.e., the middle nerve Avadhūtikā) avoiding the two extremes which are represented by the two nerves in the right and the left. This principle of adopting the middle path in the Sādhanā has variously (and often very poetically) been explained in the Tantras, Dohās and songs; but as this point has also been dealt elaborately elsewhere, it need not be repeated here.

(iv) The Four Mudrās, Four Moments And The Four Kinds of Bliss.

In this production of the Bodhicitta four stages, associated with the four Cakras or lotuses, are dis-

2 Op. cit.

¹ Obscure Religious Cults, Chapter IV.

tinetly marked, and on the basis of these four stages we find mention of four Mudras, four moments (ksana) and four kinds of bliss. The four Mudras are: Karma-mudrā, Dharma-mudrā, Mahā-mudrā Samaya-mudrā; the four moments are: Vicitra, Vipāka, Vimarda and Vilaksana; and the four kinds of bliss are: Ananda, Paramā-nanda, Viramā-nanda and Sahajānanda. The Mudras here are practically the different stages of the Sādhanā. In the small text entitled Catur-mudra we find that these four stages in the Sādhanā and the resulting realisations are metaphorically described as the four Mudras (or great women) of the Sādhaka. Here Karma-mudrā is explained as the physical yogic process of the Sādhanā (including the production of the Bodhicitta, arrest of the flow of Bodhicitta, giving it the upward motion, etc.); the realisation here is of sensual pleasure (ananda) and, therefore, it only resembles the Sahaja-bliss very faintly. The knowledge produced here is also not the pure knowledge, it only resembles perfect knowledge very faintly by analogy. Tillo-pāda says in a Dohā that the Karma-mudrā should never be depreciated, for this is the yogic practice for the realisation of the four moments and pleasure.1 Dharma-mudrā is said to be of the nature of the dharma-dhatu (i.e., the ultimate element of the dharmas), non-phenomenal (nisprapañca), free from thought-constructions (nirvikalpa), natural (a-kṛtrima), uncreate, of the nature of compassion and it produces Paramā-nanda bliss). It seems that when the Bodhicitta is made to flow upwards through the middle nerve Avadhūtī, a knowledge, associated with a realisation of bliss, of the ultimate element underlying all the elements of earth, water, fire, air and ether is obtained and the Sādhanā of this stage is called the Dharma-mudra.2 When the Bodhicitta moves still more upwards, a transcendental

¹ Dohā No. 25.

² Vide Advaya-vajra-samgraha (G.O.S.), pp. 33-34.

knowledge and realisation is produced and it is called the Mahā-mudrā. It is described as essenceless, free from the veils of subjectivity (jneyā-varana) and the passions (kleśā-varana); it is like the clear mid-day sky of the autumn, the origin of all wealth, the unity of bhava and nirvāna, a supportless body of compassion,-the embodiment of Mahasukha. The Samayamudrā (the Mudrā of knowledge) is the Mudrā per excellence-it is perfect bliss, perfect knowledge. We have seen that in the Samputikā as well as in the Hevajra-pañjikā Karma-mudrā has been placed in the Nirmāna-cakra, Dharma-mudrā in the Dharma-cakra, Mahā-mudrā in the Sambhoga-cakra and Samayamudrā in the Mahāsukha-cakra.' From this it appears that Karma-mudrā represents the totality of the process and the resulting bliss and knowledge when the Bodhicitta remains in the Nirmana-cakra, Dharmamudrā is similarly the process, resulting bliss and knowledge when the Bodhicitta is raised to the Dharmacakra, Mahā-mudrā similarly refers to the Bodhicitta in the Sambhoga-cakra and Samaya-mudrā to the Bodhicitta in the Mahāsukha-cakra.

Let us now discuss the nature of the four kinds of bliss, viz., (1) Ānanda, (2) Paramā-nanda, (3) Viramā-nanda and (4) Sahajā-nanda. Ānanda is the bliss when the Bodhicitta is in the Nirmāṇa-kāya, Paramā-nanda in the Dharma-cakra, Viramā-nanda in the Sambhoga-cakra and Sahajā-nanda in the Mahāsukha-kāya. About the nature of these four kinds of bliss the Hevajra-tantra says that Ānanda means ordinary transient pleasure, Paramā-nanda is more intense, Viramā-nanda means the detachment from the worldly pleasure and Sahajā-nanda is the final bliss. The first involves an element of tactual perception, the second is a step towards pure bliss, the third is for the destruc-

Vide Sampuțikă, MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 4854) p. 10(A); Hevaira-pañiikā, MS. p. 2(B).

Hevajra-paňjikā, MS. p. 2(B).

² Cj. also Sekoddeša-tikā (G.O.S.), p. 62 et seq.

tion of all attachment and the fourth is the final. Again Paramā-nanda is called bhava or existence in the world of birth and death, and as Viramā-nanda is said to be of the nature of detachment, it represents nirvāṇa; and Sahajā-nanda is neither bhava nor nirvāṇa, it transcends both. Again it is said that Ānanda is like a resemblance of the world, i.e., here the Sādhaka gets only a glimpse of the world; Paramā-nanda is the provisional world, Viramā-nanda represents the world, but Sahaja remains in neither of these three.

In the Sekoddeśa-tīkā we find that Ānanda is the pleasure of passion which disturbs the mind; Paramānanda is the realisation of full bliss when the Bodhicitta reaches the forehead; the next stage is the stage of Viramā-nanda when nectar oozes from the moon in the forehead. Even in this stage of Viramā-nanda the Sādhaka retains his consciousness of the egohood, i.e., the realisation of the bliss in this stage is associated with some sort of self-consciousness; but this self-consciousness is totally lost in the state of Sahajā-nanda where the knower and the knowable are lost in the oneness of perfect bliss. Of the sixteen digits of the moon the first five represent Ānanda, up to the tenth is Paramā-nanda, up to the fifteenth is Viramā-nanda and the sixteenth represents Sahajā-nanda. Again,

¹ ānandena sukham kiñcit paramā-nandam tato'dhikam | viramā-nando virāgah syāt sahajā-nandam tu śeṣataḥ || prathamam sparśā-krāntañca dvitīyam sukha-vāñchayā | tṛtīyam rāga-nāśatvāc caturtham tena bhāvyate || paramā-nandah bhavam proktam nirvāṇañ ca virāgataḥ | madhyamā-nanda-mātran tu sahajam ebhir vivarjītam ||

Hevajra-tantra.

Cf. also Sekoddeśa-tīkā (G.O.S.), pp. 54-55.

prathamā-nanda-mātran tu paramā-nandam dvisamkhyataḥ |
tritīyam viramā-khyañ ca caturtham sahajam smṛtam ||

prathamā-nandam jagad-rūpam paramā-nandam jagat tathā | viramā-nandam jagac caiva na vidyeta sahajam triņu || Ibid., p. 27(B).

Cf. also the commentary.

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corresponding to the four stages, viz, the state of wakefulness ($j\bar{a}grat$), dream (svapna), deep sleep (susupta) and the fourth or the final state ($tur\bar{i}ya$), we have the four elements, viz, body ($k\bar{a}ya$), speech ($v\bar{a}k$), mind (citta) and knowledge ($j\tilde{n}ana$); we have four kinds of bliss in each of these states and thus the actual number of the kinds of bliss becomes sixteen in all.

Closely associated with these four kinds of Ananda is the theory of the four moments or four distinct stages in the realisation of the Sahaja. These are, as we have seen, Vicitra, Vipāka, Vimarda and Vilaksana. Vicitra is the moment when the realisation of pleasure is attended with various kinds of emotions resulting from physical union. Vipāka is the moment when the bliss is matured to knowledge; Vimarda is a higher moment when the realisation of the bliss is attended with the consciousness of the ego as the realiser of the bliss; Vilaksana is the moment when the realisation transcends all these three and the realisation of the bliss is free from any emotion of attachment or detachment. In the Vicitra moment there is the realisation of Ananda, in the Vipāka Paramā-nanda, in the Vimarda Viramā-nanda and in the Vilakṣaṇa Sahajā-nanda.

This theory of moments and the four kinds of bliss is very important from the standpoint of Yoga; for the lay Yogin who will not be able to distinguish between the one moment from the other and one kind of bliss from the other, may take even gross sensuality to be Sahaja-bliss or Mahāsukha; but that is practi-

¹ G.O.S., pp. 26-27.

² vicitrañ ca vipākañ ca vimardo vilakṣaṇas tathā | catuh kṣaṇaṁ samāgamya evaṁ jānanti yoginaḥ || vicitraṁ vividhaṁ khyātam āliṅgana-cumbanā-dikam | vipākaṁ tad-viparyāsaṁ sukha-jñānasya bhuñjanam || vimardam ālocanaṁ proktaṁ sukhaṁ bhuktaṁ mayeti ca | vilakṣaṇaṁ tribhyo'nyatra rāgā-rāga-vivarjitam || vicitre prathamā-nandaḥ paramā-nando vipākake (?) | viramā-nando vimardaś ca sahajā-nando vilakṣaṇe ||

Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 39(A). But cf. Seka-nirnaya of Advaya-vajra-samgraha (G.O.S.), p. 28.

cally adopting the path to hell. It is for this reason that the four moments and the four kinds of bliss must be very clearly distinguished. The Hevajra-tantra says that a perfect knowledge of the bliss follows only from a perfect knowledge of the moments. Tillo-pāda says in one of his Dohās, "He who knows the distinction of the different moments and the different kinds of bliss becomes a real Yogin in this very life".

To understand the esoteric Yoga of the Tantric Buddhists let us now sum up the whole discussion. We said in the beginning of this chapter that Mahāsukha or great bliss is the Absolute of the Tantrikas. This Mahasukha in its state of Absolute is motionless and changeless; it materialises itself in the gradual process of change. The lowest Cakra of the body (whether the Nirmāna-cakra of the Buddhists or the Mūlādhāra-cakra of the Hindus) is the material plane and Mahāsukha remains here in its grossly physical form-it is the sexpleasure; and in this plane Bodhicitta is the physical bindu (seed); through further downward motion the bindu becomes transformed into the physical body. But as the bindu marches up from the physical plane to higher and higher planes it casts off its physical nature and approximates its original nature as the motionless and changeless; this motionless and changeless Mahāsukha in the highest plexus is the Absolute in which the self and the not-self merge. The bindu in the Nirmanacakra is composed of earth, water, fire, air and ether; but when the bindu in its upward march leaves the Nirmāṇa-cakra, the element of earth merges itself in water, and in this way, with further march of the Bodhicitta, the element of water merges itself in fire, fire in air and air in citta, and thus in the highest plane, i.e., Usnīsa-kamala it becomes pure effulgence. When this

¹ ānandās tatra jāyante kṣaṇa-bhedena bheditah | kṣaṇa-jñānāt sukha-jñānam evaṁkāre pratiṣṭhitam || Hevajra-tantra, MS. p. 39(A).

^{*} khana-ānanda-bheu jo jānai | so iha jammahi joi bhanijjai | (No. 28).

bindu as pure effulgence becomes perfectly motionless in the highest plexus the Sādhaka attains a transubstantiated divine body with divine (immaterial) eyes and ears; he thus becomes omniscient and all-pervading and thus becomes the Buddha Himself.

¹ Sekoddeśa-tikā (G.O.S.), p. 7, also, p. 45.

CHAPTER VI

THE ARGUMENT OF THE TANTRIC BUDDHISTS IN DEFENCE OF THEIR YOGA

In the previous chapters we have tried to give an exposition of the theories and practices of the Tantric Buddhists. The rationale of the sexo-yogic practice of the Tantric Buddhists is to be found in what has been described and discussed above. We do not think that any further argument is necessary in defence. But it seems that, because of the unconventional nature of their practices, these Tantric Buddhists were sometimes over-conscious about the justifiability of their practices and advanced various arguments in defence of these practices. It will, therefore, not be without interest to state and examine the main arguments of these Tantrikas as we find them in the various Tantras. These arguments, as is the case with their other arguments, are not found in the texts in a systematised form, they are rather to be culled from the texts. But two works are found mainly, though not entirely, devoted to offering something like a philosophical explanation of these practices; the first is the Cittaviśuddhi-prakarana of Aryadeva and the second is the Tattva-siddhi of Śānta-raksita.

The main argument, to start with, is that to pass any ethical judgment on the nature of an action, it should always be remembered that an action, of whatsoever nature may it be, is by itself neither moral nor immoral; in its non-relational absolute nature it is purely colourless, and hence in itself it has got no value, that being always relative. Thus the moral, immoral and non-moral nature of an action is to be determined

¹ MS. (C.L.B.), No. 18124.

by the effect it produces in relation to the general scheme of life. To be strictly ethical, it is not even the effect that determines the nature of an action,-it is rather the motive behind that speaks either for or against it. The main emphasis of the Tantric Buddhists seems to be on this vital point of ethics. If it be the motive behind the action, and not the action itself, that determines the nature of an action, any and every action in the form of some religious practice is to be justified, provided, the motive behind is nothing but the attainment of some religious fulfilment. The ultimate goal of the Tantric Buddhists is the realisation of Mahāsukha in the form of perfect enlightenment, which tantamounts to the realisation of the Vajranature or the Sahaja-nature of the self and the dharmas. With a view to attaining this final goal they adopted a particular sexo-yogic practice. If we are to judge this practice by the motive which impels them to have recourse to it-and not by the commonly accepted nature and value of the action-we shall have nothing to say against it. If the motive or rather the perspective be not pure, they will be like fools building their house on the sands and great will be their fall in the dark abyss of the cycle of birth and death. This path of Yoga with sex-relation has frequently been spoken of as a very easy path for the attainment of success, as it is the most natural path, being in consonance with our natural human tendencies and involving no unnatural strain of continual repression. At the same time it has also been repeatedly reminded at every step that it is also a very dangerous path of Yoga; for, everything depends on the purity of the citta.

In the Citta-viśuddhi-prakarana of Aryadeva we find a short ethical discussion on the nature of sin. There it is said that the mind is the real agent of all actions—nay, it is the antecedent factor of the dharmas, it is the most important, it is the quickest; it is through the pleasure and displeasure of the mind that our speech

and actions follow. It is, therefore, that the citta is solely responsible for the ethical nature of an action.

Thus the intention behind an action gives an action a moral or immoral colouring, and as this principle has got its sanction in the Scriptures, no pious man can have any objection to it. Then the author goes on to say that the Yogin, who has made a 'god' of himself by the universalisation of the self, and all of whose activities are prompted by a spirit of benevolence towards the world, attains liberation by the enjoyment of objects, and never is he bound down by any such enjoyment. As a man versed in the science of poison knows poison as poison and then swallows some quantity of it and yet he never falls swooning thereby, on the other hand becomes cured of diseases, so also is the case with an expert Yogin, who attains liberation through enjoyment.

A general consideration of the trend of argument of the Tantric Buddhists will show that their main stress is on the point that no action duly performed with

¹ manahpūrvangamā dharmā manahśreṣthā manojabāḥ | manasā hi prasannena bhāṣate vā karoti vā || Verse 10.

This verse is nothing but the Sanskritised form of the two opening verses of the Pali text Dhamma-pada which run thus:—

manopubbangamā dhammā manoseṭṭhā manomayā|
manasā ce paduṭṭhena bhāsati vā karoti vā|
tato'nam dukkha-manveti cakkam'va vahato padam ||
manopubbangamā dhammā manoseṭthā manomayā |
manasā ce pasannena bhāsati vā karoti vā|

tato'nam sukhamanveti chāyā va anapāyinī Verses 1-2.

The author takes an instance here. An old man was directed by a slumbering monk to go quickly to a place; because of the rapidity of motion the old fellow had a fall and he died; now apparently the sin of causing death to the old man seems to devolve on the slumbering monk; but as the intention of the monk in ordering the old man to hasten to a particular place was very good, he should not be held morally responsible for the death of the old man and thus he commits no sin. The authority of the Vinaya is also referred to here which holds that unintentional causing of death is no sin on the part of a man possessing no wicked mind. Verses 11-13.

^{*} tasmād āśaya-mūlā hi pāpa-puņya-vyavasthitiḥ | ity uktam āgame yasmān nā'pattiḥ śubha-cetasām | Ibid., Verse 15.

^{*} Ibid., Verses 17-18.

Prajñā and Upāya comes within the scope of our popular code of morality. Prajñā, we have seen, is perfect knowledge of the nature of perfect vacuity about the nature of the self and the dharmas; and Upāya is the spirit of universal compassion, and these two taken together constitute the Bodhicitta. Now, it can very easily be shown from the standpoint of Prajñā or perfect knowledge that there cannot be any provision for morality, and similarly it can also be shown that from the standpoint of Upāya or universal compassion also there cannot be any provision for morality.

We have seen that the Tantric Buddhists, in unison with the Mahāyānist Buddhists in general, were advocates of an extreme form of idealism. With them the world has no objective basis; everything that appears to exist outside, is nothing but the illusory creation of the subject. indeed, extremely difficult to construct any system of ethics on the ground of this extreme form of idealism. And as a matter of fact the idealistic Buddhists left no scope for morality. It has been declared by Nāgārjuna in unequivocal terms that the value of morality is always provisional, there being no objective basis for it whatsoever. The whole universe of good and bad, right and wrong, being a mere creation of the citta, the world of morality has only subjective value and as such is always provisional. This extreme form of subjectivism has often been emphasised by the Tantric Buddhists in connection with the ethical questions pertaining to their practices. The citta or mind being the ultimate ground of all creation, the nature of the citta will determine the nature of all appearances in the form of actions; and so, all actions done with a pure mind cannot but be pure even if sex-relation is involved in them. In the Jñāna-siddhi of Indra-bhūti we find an interesting discussion on this topic of virtue and vice. It is pointed out that contradictory statements and injunctions are to be met with in the Tantric texts; some actions are described somewhere as virtuous and vicious in other places. How then to reconcile these contradictory statements? It has been replied that in reality there is nothing virtuous and nothing vicious. Virtue and vice depend on the condition of the citta. There are three elements (dhātu) which generally combine together for the performance of an action; these are body (kāya), speech (vāk) and mind (manas). Of the three, body has no power to do anything without mind; speech is also never possible without mind; so, it stands that it is the citta that is doing all good and bad through body and speech.' How then to define virtue and vice? It is said, whatever is done with a view to doing good to the world is right or virtuous, and whatever is done with any other motive is a sin.2 All the right and wrong are created by the citta and it is through the citta again that they are all destroyed. Charity is one of the universally recognised moral virtues; but the mere action of giving produces no virtue unless it is done with a charitable mind; the virtue of the action of giving depends solely on the attitude of the mind. It is finally decided here that there is no other criterion of virtue than the benevolent spirit; any action prompted by such a spirit is moral, and any action done with a malicious spirit is immoral.4

It has been further argued in some of the texts that the Yogin, before he enters into the auspicious circle

¹ Ch. IX, Verses 6-7.

² hitā-rtham yad bhavet karma sarvam sac-caritam bhavet | viparyayāt apunyam tat pravadanti jino-ttamāh || Ibid., Verse 8.

³ Ibid., Verse 15.

^{&#}x27;In the tenth chapter of the same work it is said that the conceptions of purity and impurity are mere thought-constructions. There is nothing as purity; for, the very existence of purity will posit its anti-thesis impurity; and if there be no conception of purity at all, there will not be any conception of impurity also. Both the conceptions are relative and are mere imagination of the common run of people (X, 9-10). In the eleventh chapter of the same work we find that a Yogin is justified to adopt any woman for the purpose of his Yoga, no matter in what relation she stands to him; for, all human relations are without any objective truth behind them; they are mere thought-constructions of the common people.

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with a view to be initiated in the secret cult of Yoga, must possess a trained mind and perfectly purified body (or rather an immortal body) fit to realise the ultimate void-nature or the Sahaja-nature of the self and the dharmas. When the mind of a Yogin is thus 'placed in the knowledge of the vacuity or the non-dual knowledge', he cannot have any mental complex of morality and immorality or virtue and vice. To such a man all the dharmas appear to be of the same non-dual nature.' In the Yuganaddha-krama of the Pañca-krama it has been said that when the Yogin places himself in the state of Yuganaddha or unification he should make no distinction between the self and the enemy, the wife and the daughter, the mother and a public woman, a Dombi and a lady belonging to the caste of the twiceborn ; to him a piece of cloth and the skin of a beast, jewel and the husk of corn, urine and good drink,

Moreover, in the beginningless whirl of birth and death a mother of one life may become the daughter of the other life, and she again in her turn may become a wife in the next birth; so there being no fundamental difference between a woman as the mother and as the daughter and the wife, any one of them may be adopted for the purpose of Yoga. This ocean of world is full of the water of thought-constructions, and the yogic process of the Vajra-yāna is like a raft to take people across the other shore.

It has been said in the Ekalla-vira-canda-mahā-roṣaṇa-tantra that the Yogin of the Vajra-yāna should have no fear either of heaven or of hell; for there is neither any vice, nor any virtue; all vice and virtue are spoken of only for the satisfaction of the common people. As everything is by nature nothing but the citta and as the existence of everything is but momentary, who is there to go

to hell and who to go to heaven?

na pāpam vidyate kiñcit na puņyam kiñcid astīha | lokānām citta-raksāya pāpa-puņya-vyavasthitih || citta-mātram yatah sarvam kṣaṇa-mātram yatah sthitih || narakam gacchati ko'sau ko'sau svargam prayāti hi || MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 9089) p. 14(A).

¹ It is said in the fifteenth chapter of the Prajño-pāya-viniscaya-siddhi of Ananga-vajra that in the yogic practices of Vajra-yāna there should be no deliberation as to what kind of a Mudrā should be adopted and what not; for, through the Yoga, which leads to the realisation of the magical nature of the universe, one can safely enjoy everything. Everything having its existence in the ultimate non-dual substance (dharma-dhātu), nothing can be harmful to Yoga; and, therefore, the Yogin should enjoy everything to his heart's content without the least fear or hesitation. Verses 29-30.

cooked food and waste matter, scented camphor and the bad smell of the impure, praises and scorns—all are of equal value. To him there is no distinction between the fierce God (i.e., Siva) and the wielder of the thunder (i.e., Indra), between day and night, dream and awakening, the past and the present, happiness and sorrow, any wicked man and the son, hell and heaven, virtue and vice.

We find it quoted in the Subhāṣita-saṃgraha that whatever easy movements of the limbs are produced through the Bodhicitta, which is pure by nature, are to be recognised as the Mudrās (yogic Mudrās), and all the sound-vibrations are to be recognised as the Mantras. Not only that, in connection with the Sahaja all the varieties of emotions, such as the erotic emotion, heroism, the emotion of scorn, anger, laughter, fear, pity, wonder and quiescence,—the emotions of attachment, hatred, infatuation, pride and jealousy, etc.,—all become pure by nature and all of them reflect the knowledge of vacuity; for, at basis all these are nothing but the forms of the one citta produced through the three elements.

In the Hevajra-tantra the Bodhisattva Vajra-

¹ yathā²tmani tathā śatrau yathā bhāryā tathā-tmajā |
yathā mātā tathā veśyā yathā dombī tathā dvijā ||
yathā vastram tathā carma yathā ratnam tathā tuṣam |
yathā mūtram tathā medyam yathā bhaktam tathā sakrt ||
yathā sugandhi-karpūram tathā gandham amedhyajam |
yathā stutikaram vākyam tathā vākyañ jugupsitam ||
yathā rudras tathā vajrī yathā rātris tathā divā |
yathā svapnam tathā drṣṭam yathā naṣṭam tathā sthitam ||
yathā saukhyam tathā duḥkham yathā duṣṭas tathā sutah |
yathā vīcis tathā svargās tathā puṇyam tu pāpakam ||
Pañca-krama, MS. p. 33(A).

² Subhäsita-samgraha, p. 47. Again it has been said,—foolish people think of liberation (mokṣa) as something entirely different from the enjoyment of the world; but whatever there is sublime and great which is heard, seen, smelt, eaten, known and touched, is good all round; all the women are to be known as the thunderwomen (vajra-nārī), all men are to be recognised as the lords of the yogic circle, the whole drama of the world is to be known as perfectly pure by nature.

Subhāṣita-samgraha, p. 56.

cooked food and waste matter, scented camphor and the bad smell of the impure, praises and scorns-all are of equal value. To him there is no distinction between the fierce God (i.e., Siva) and the wielder of the thunder (i.e., Indra), between day and night, dream and awakening, the past and the present, happiness and sorrow, any wicked man and the son, hell and heaven, virtue and vice.1

We find it quoted in the Subhāṣita-samgraha that whatever easy movements of the limbs are produced through the Bodhicitta, which is pure by nature, are to be recognised as the Mudras (yogic Mudras), and all the sound-vibrations are to be recognised as the Mantras. Not only that, in connection with the Sahaja all the varieties of emotions, such as the erotic emotion, heroism, the emotion of scorn, anger, laughter, fear, pity, wonder and quiescence,-the emotions of attachment, hatred, infatuation, pride and jealousy, etc.,-all become pure by nature and all of them reflect the knowledge of vacuity; for, at basis all these are nothing but the forms of the one citta produced through the three elements.2

In the Hevajra-tantra the Bodhisattva Vajra-

1 yathā'tmani tathā śatrau yathā bhāryā tathā-tmajā yathā mātā tathā vešyā yathā dombi tathā dvijā | yathā vastram tathā carma yathā ratnam tathā tuşam | yathā mūtram tathā medyam yathā bhaktam tathā sakrt | yathā sugandhi-karpūram tathā gandham amedhyajam | yathā stutikaram vākyam tathā vākyan jugupsitam || yathā rudras tathā vajrī yathā rātris tathā divā | yathā svapnam tatha drstam yathā nastam tathā sthitam yatha saukhyam tatha duhkham yatha dustas tatha sutah! yathā vīcis tathā svargās tathā punyam tu pāpakam | Pañca-krama, MS. p. 88(A).

² Subhäsita-samgraha, p. 47. Again it has been said,—foolish people think of liberation (moksa) as something entirely different from the enjoyment of the world; but whatever there is sublime and great which is heard, seen, smelt, eaten, known and touched, is good all round; all the women are to be known as the thunderwomen (vajra-nārī), all men are to be recognised as the lords of the yogic circle, the whole drama of the world is to be known as perfectly pure by nature.

garbha asks the Lord (bhagavān) how it may be possible to attain success in Yoga in the company of a woman. In reply the Lord says that in the Prajñā and the Upāya there is neither origination nor destruction; through perfect knowledge of the world the Yogin first of all should realise the illusory and magical nature of the world, and then he will find that all the theses and anti-theses vanish in the sky. Yoga presupposes this knowledge about the world and the Yoga performed with this kind of knowledge is always above the range of the ordinary codes of morality.

Tillo-pāda says in one of his Dohās, "I am void, the world is void,—all the three worlds are void,—in this pure Sahaja there is neither sin nor virtue." The ultimate reality is bereft of both merit and demerit.

Now, from the standpoint of Upāya or universal compassion we see, that the ordinary standard of morality cannot be applied to a Bodhisattva. For, a Bodhisattva has no right to consider the pros and cons

Cf. also,—yas tu sarvāṇi kriyāṇi prajñayā viniyojayet |so'pi śūnya-pada-yogas tapo hy etam mahātmanām ||
Sarva-deva-samāgama-tantra, quoted in the Subhāṣitasamgraha, p. 49.

¹ MS. pp. 35(A)—35(B). In the Svādhisthāna-krama of the Paāca-krama we find it prescribed that in Yoga the Yogin first of all should worship himself as the all-pervading perfectly enlightened one; and then the employment of Mantras and Mudrās and the describing of the yogic circle and the performances of offering and sacrifice should all be made as magic; all performances for peace and well-being, and the Āvhicārika performances (like subduing or attracting others) should all be made as if they are all like the rainbow in the sky, and all enjoyment like that of sex-intercourse, etc., and songs and sounds, etc., should be made as if they are all like the moon reflected in water.

mantra-mudrā-prayogañca maṇḍa(lā)di-vikalpanam |
bali-homa-kriyām sarvām kuryāt māyo-pamām sadā |
śāntikam pauṣṭikañ cā'pi tathā vaṣyā-bhicārakam |
ākarṣṇā-di yat sarvam kuryāt indrāyudho-pamam |
śṛṅgārā-dy-upabhogañ ca gīta-vādyā-di-sevanam |
kalāsu ca pravṛttiñ ca kuryād udaka-candra-vat ||

MS. p. 27(B).

Dohā No. 84.

² hau sunna jagu sunna tihua[na] sunna | [nimmala sahaje na papa na punna]

^{*} Dohā No. 29.

of any action from his own standpoint, that is to say, he has no right to judge an action as right or wrong only because it produces some good or bad effect on him. The life of a Bodhisattva being pledged for the world at large, he may be required to do something which pleases others but may do him harm.

The main emphasis of the Vajra-yānists is on the point that all the other religious systems are rather

¹ Thus we find in the Tattva-siddhi,—if a woman falls passionately in love with a Bodhisattva and if she be about to sacrifice her life for him, it is the bounden duty of the Bodhisattva to save her life by satisfying her. So the Bodhisattva should transgress the law even of the ten kinds of meritorious deed for the sake of others.

co'ktam bhagavatā sila-paṭale/bodhisattvena daśa-kuśalāny api parā-rthena khaṇḍayitavyāni/yathā kācit kāmā-rthinī kāminī strī bodhisattvam prati prāṇān tyajet/tasyāḥ kāmādi-samsevanena

prāna-sancāram kāryam/

Tattva-siddhi, MS. (C.L.B.) p. 205.

It is for this reason that it has been repeatedly said in many of the texts that there is nothing in the world, which a Bodhisattvayogin should not do for the sake of the beings. (Citta-viśuddhi-prakarana, Verse 33). It has also been repeatedly declared that the
only criterion of morality is a sincere will for the good of others.
Anything that is harmful to the beings is immoral by nature.
Perfect enlightenment has been denied to the orthodox monks belonging to the Hina-yāna fold, though they strictly observe all the
so-called discipline of morality. It is said in the Guhyendu-tilaka
and other Tantras of the same type,—"There is nothing not to be
done by a man whose mind is equipped with Prajñā and Upāya; he
should always enjoy the five objects of desire most unhesitatingly.

** He, whose Bodhicitta is firm and whose mind is not
attached to desires, need not have any doubt or hesitation in this
Yoga, his success is guaranteed".

nāsti kiñcit akartavyam prajāo-pāyena cetasā | nirvišankah sadā bhūtvā bhoktavyam pañca-kāmakam |

bodhicittam drdham yasya nihsanga ca matir bhavet | vicikitsa naiva kartavya tasyedam sidhyate dhruvam | Quoted in the Tattva-siddhi, MS. p. 185.

It has been said in the *Upāli-paripṛcchā-sūtra* that the passions of the Bodhisattva proceed out of deep compassion for the beings. Because of the aim and also the knowledge which accompany them they never affect the mind of the Bodhisattva. It is, therefore, said that with the Bodhicitta the Yogin himself becomes a god, such a Yogin need not inflict torture on him through hard penance; let him be the perfectly enlightened one through the enjoyment of bliss. Neither purity, nor rules and regulations, neither penance nor hard works are required for success; success is to be attained through an easy process of pleasure and bliss. (Quoted in the *Tattva-siddhi*, MS. pp. 188-189.)

defective inasmuch as they prescribe the most unnatural repression on the mind of a man. Through the practices of the difficult vows, fastings and hard penances a man may inflict torture upon his body and mind, but through such an unnatural process nothing like final tranquillity of the mind can be attained. The principle of the Tantric Buddhists in introducing the esoteric yogic practice is much akin to the principle of Homœopathy, viz., Similia similibus curantur. It has been found on investigation that the element, which causes a disease under particular circumstances, cures the same disease when applied by an expert physician in a different way, i.e., in a very smaller dilution. The Vajra-yanists will also say, that the very action which binds a man down to the world of infinite misery may help him to attain liberation, if taken from a different perspective, i.e., if taken with the knowledge of the Prajñā and the Upāya. This principle of the Vajra-yanists is found explained in many of the texts in the form of a set of analogies, the main purport of which is, what binds the fool, liberates the wise; that which may prove fatal to ordinary people may conduce to health and happiness in the case of a scientist, that which drags the uninitiated fool to the hell of debauchery may help the initiated Yogin to attain perfect enlightenment. It has been said in the Citta-viśuddhiprakarana of Aryadeva, "Childish people are pleased with colour and beauty-the mediocre resort to renunciation, the highly enlightened ones, who know the ultimate nature of all form and beauty are liberated."1 What is real with childish fools is unreal with the Yogins,-through this principle the wise realise the end, they are neither bound down nor liberated (i.e., they realise the state which transcends both bondage and liberation). Only the ignorant think of existence and

bālā rajyanti rūpesu vairāgyam yānti madhyamāḥ | svabhāva-jñā vimucyante rūpasyo'ttama-buddhayaḥ || Verse 20.

extinction.—the seers of truth think neither of the world nor of nirvana. In this ocean of the world our thoughtconstructions are the only disturbing elements; those great saints who have been able to transcend these constructive imaginations are liberated from the bondage of the world.' Ordinary people are as much obstructed by the poison of doubt as the really poisoned people are: the compassionate must eradicate all such doubts and move freely. As a transparent gem is coloured by the colour of other objects, so also is the gem of eitta coloured by the constructive imaginations, but by nature this gem of citta is free from the colour of imaginations-it is pure from the beginning-uncreate -essenceless and stainless.' Whatever should not be done by foolish people should very carefully be done by the Yogin whose mind is pure. When women are charmed and enjoyed by a Yogin, whose mind is bent on the good, they conduce to the fulfilment of desires and also to liberation at the same time.4 By a methodical meditation on the supreme qualities of the gods a Yogin revels through his passionate mind and is again liberated through the fulfilment of the passions. As a man affected with poison again gets rid of it through poison, as the water in the ear is removed with the help of water poured in the ear, as a thorn is removed with the help of another thorn, in exactly the same manner the great sages get themselves relieved of all the passions with the help of the passions. As the washerman washes and cleanses his clothes with the help of some dirty substance, so should the wise remove the filth of his mind through filth (of enjoyable objects).5 As a

¹ Ibid., Verses 23-25. ² Ibid., Verse No. 28.

² Ibid., Verses 26-27. ⁴ Ibid., Verses 29-80.

visā-krānto yathā kascid visenaiva tu nirvisah | karnāj jalam jalenaiva kantakenaiva kantakam | rāgenaiva tathā rāgam uddharanti manīsinah | yathaiva rajako vastram malenaiva tu nirmalam | kuryād vijāas tathā tmānam malenaiva tu nirmalam | Ibid., Verses 86-38.

glass becomes pure and transparent when rubbed with rubbish, in exactly the same manner when something bad is done and enjoyed by the learned, it becomes the destroyer of all wrong. When a lump of iron is thrown into water it certainly sinks down, but when it is shaped as a vessel it not only floats on water, but takes others also to the other shore; exactly in the same manner, if through the principles of Prajñā and Upāva the mind can be shaped into a vessel, one is not only liberated through the enjoyment of objects but relieves others also.1 It is well known to all that milk destroys poison(?); but the very milk taken by the snake is transformed into strong poison. As the swan drinks milk out of a mixture of milk and water, so also the learned enjoy the poisonous objects of desire, but avoids bondage and attains liberation.2 Then the author tries to show that no object of the world and no action whatsoever has got any absolute nature with a beneficial or a pernicious influence. The nature of the dharmas, depend mainly on the collocation of cause and conditions. A slight elemental change, or a slight change of condition may change the nature of an object altogether. From this the author draws the conclusion that human passions and the actions prompted by them have got no absolute nature of their own, and as such by themselves they are neither beneficial nor pernicious, neither virtuous nor vicious. As, for instance, poison, when taken in a scientific manner acts like nectar, and even food like buttered cakes, etc., when taken in an unscientific manner by the fool, acts like poison, so also is the case with this citta, which, when purified by pure cause and conditions shines bereft of all thought-constructions, bereft of any attachment and is pure by nature.' As the dim ray of a lamp, when supplied with fresh oil and wick, becomes unflickering

¹ Ibid., Verses 39-41. ² Ibid., Verses 43-44. ³ Ibid., Verses 45-46.

light and removes all darkness, as the small seed of the banian tree with proper nourishment grows in exuberance with roots, branches, leaves and fruits and becomes a great tree, as the yellow colour in combination with lime undergoes a great change, so also is the element of the dharmas which admits of great change in association with Prajñā and Upāya.1 Clarified butter (ghrta), when taken with honey, has the chemical effect of poison; but when it is duly taken, it has got a chemical action conducive to health. As copper, rubbed with some chemical substance, becomes pure gold, so the afflictions (kleśa), when purified with knowledge, becomes beneficial to men. The followers of the Hinayana have their fear of death at every step, but the followers of the Mahāyāna, accepting the religion of compassion and with their mind bent on relieving the whole world and having the bow of Prajñā in their hands, have no fear of anything whatsoever.2 As the lotus grows in mud, but is never affected by the defects of mud, so the Yogin is never affected by the vices of imaginative construction and of the desires. 1

The Tattva-siddhi of Śānta-rakṣita breathes the same spirit as the Citta-viśuddhi-prakaraṇa. There also we find that the beauty and objects of the world, when duly enjoyed with the knowledge of the Prajñā and Upāya, must produce some special religious effect (viśiṣṭa-phala-vāhakā bhavanti). It is a commonly accepted truth that some special substance has got the capacity of producing some special effect; as, for instance, the fruit of the Emblic Myrobalan (āmalaka).

¹ yathā vahnih kṛśo'py eṣa taila-vartyā-di-samskṛtaḥ | dīpo nirmala-niṣkampaḥ sthira-timira-nāṣanaḥ || vaṭa-bijam yathā sūkṣmam sahakāra-samanvitam | śākhā-mūla-phalopetam mahāvṛkṣa-vidhāyakam || haridrā-cūrṇa-samyogād varṇā-ntaram iti smṛtam | prajño-pāya-samāyogād dharma-dhātus tathā viduḥ || Ibid., Verses 47-49.

² Ibid., Verses 50-53. ³ panka-jātam yathā padmam panka-doşair na lipyate | vikalpa-vāsanā-doṣais tathā yogī na lipyate || Ibid., Verse 115.

which grows on earth, has got by nature an astringent taste; but that very āmalaka fruit, when it obtains the additional condition of being run through a process with milk, tastes very sweet. So it is found experimentally that the same thing may have different effects when affected or reformed through other different cause and conditions. If that be true, there cannot be any doubt about the fact that the objects of the world, when properly enjoyed with the vogic practices can produce some special religious effect. In this connection it is reminded that there is no such law that a particular thing will produce the same particular effect under all the varying circumstances; on the other hand, it is seen that one root-cause may produce entirely different effects under different collocation of conditions. mysterious capacity of the combination of the cause and conditions is unknown and unthinkable even to the wise.1 That being the case, it is to be admitted that sex-passions, which generally drag a man down to the level of the beasts, may also raise him to the level of the gods, if, however, these passions are reformed and purified with the knowledge of the Prajñā and Upāya. The authority of the Ratna-kūta-sūtra is quoted here, where it has been said that as in the cane-fields or in the paddy-fields fertilisation of the soil becomes of much help for the growth of corn, so also the reformed afflictions become beneficial to the Bodhisattva.2

As the forms (rūpa) and objects (dravya) have no absolute nature of their own, and as their nature depends on the variation of conditions, and as associated with Prajñā and Upāya they, instead of fettering the mind of a man in the world of misery, can conduce to supreme bliss and final liberation, so also is the case

¹ acint(y)atvāddhetu-pratyaya-sāmarthyasya sarvavidām | MS. p. 184.

² tad yathā keşu ikşu-kşetreşu śāli-kşetreşu samskāra-kūţa upa-kārī-bhūto bhavati/evam eva bodhisattvasya kleśa upakārī-bhūto bhavati.

Quoted in the Tattva-siddhi, MS. pp. 187-188.

with the bliss resulting from any kind of tactual sensation (sparśa-nirjāta-sukha). As in association with ignorance this bliss may be the cause of bondage and of illusion, in association with Prajñā and Upāya it may again lead one to a transcendental state. The whole thing depends on the motive or the mental attitude or the resolution (saṅkalpa). If the mental resolution (manoratha-saṅkalpa) be pure, everything will be beneficial not only to the self, but also to the whole world.

Again it is said, this tactual pleasure may, through practice and a strict mental discipline, lead our mind to a transcendental absolute position, where the tranquillity of mind becomes a natural outcome of the tactual pleasure. As fine arts, through sights and sounds, can gradually lead our disciplined mind to a tranquil, supreme and permanent nature (samāhitaparama-śāśvata-svabhāva), so also is the case with this tactual bliss. Our deep emotions of passion, grief, fear, etc., and the bliss arising out of touch, etc., may also have a supreme transcendental effect on our mind. The intensity of an emotion can destroy all the waves of mentation and create an undisturbed oneness (samarasa) in the mind. It has been said that through those very emotions, through which the mind of a man becomes concentrated, the mind of a man becomes absorbed in the thatness just like the Viśva-rūpa jewel.' The whole thing hinges, as we have seen, on the condition of the subject. As when the Ketaki flower is eaten by an elephant, its scent transforms itself into musk, and when eaten by any one other than the elephant, it has different transformations, and as the Ketaki flower itself is not responsible for any of these

¹ yena yena hi bhāvena manah samyujyate nṛṇām | tena tanmayatām yāti viśva-rūpo manir yathā ||

Quoted in the Commentary, Marma-kalikā-tantra, MS. p. 5(A); quoted in the Tattva-siddhi, MS. p. 197.

It is also found in the Heruka-tantra with slight variations in reading. MS. (R.A.S.B., No. 11279) p. 74(B).

transformations, so also is the case with our passions; they produce entirely different effects under different circumstances mainly depending on the subjective conditions. Again as milk drunk by the snake results in poison and has the effect of nectar when drunk by others, so also is the case with the human passions.'

As a matter of fact, what really is the vrata (vow) of a Yogin of the Vajra-yana? It is to view all the dharmas as well as the self from the perspective of perfect vacuity. If that be the fact, when a perfect Yogin sees some objects with his eyes, the objects are void, and so are his eyes; how, then, can the void be affected by the void? The vow of a Yogin is to do everything with a compassionate mind and with the knowledge of the void; and if these conditions are fulfilled, the Yogin can do whatever he likes without the least possible fear of his being fettered again in this world; what is done with a compassionate, fearless mind, free from thought-constructions, is the best of all the vows.2 Again what is tapas (penance)? It is said. "To perform all works with a fearless mind-to observe all the practices with a fearless mind,-this is the best kind of tapas (penances)."3

The arguments discussed above represent the general trend of thought found in the Buddhist Tantras in justification of the practices they adopt in their yogic Sādhanā. The same arguments are to be found in many of the Tantras and Dohās, explained with the help of various kinds of analogies. Thus it is said in the Jvālāvali-vajra-mālā-tantra,—"As mad elephants are subdued with the help of molasses and rice, so also should the highest knowledge be attained through a similar process. As some medicine is sweet to taste

¹ Ibid., MS. pp. 205-206.

² punaś co'ktam/yoginām kīdrśam vratam? sopāyam sarva-karmāni nirviśankaś caret sadā| nirvikalpena bhāvena vratānām uttamo-ttamah || Tattva-siddhi, MS. p. 102.

³ Ibid., p. 192.

and at the same time cures disease, so also is the bliss coming out of the combination of the Praiña and the Upāya,—it destroys the afflictions easily and smoothly ... Again, what to one is a rope for hanging oneself, is the remover of bondage to the other. O, the wonderful power of the followers of the excellent vehicle of Mahāyāna! Kāma here practices religion by deeply embracing women." The commentary on the Dohākoşa of Kānhu-pāda raises a question in this connection, Mahā-sukha is non-caúsal (nirnimitta), whereas the bliss arising out of the combination of the Praiña and Upava is causal; how then can the latter become the Mahāsukha? The reply is that through the instructions of a good preceptor the causal bliss itself may become noncausal.* The authority of Saraha-pāda is also quoted here. He says, "This causal bliss becomes non-causal to the great, and it becomes of the nature of Mahā-sukha which is free from thought-constructions and is of the nature of self-produced knowledge.3 Again it may be questioned,-if at the time of the Sādhanā everything of the world is to be thought of as void in essence and illusory or magical in appearance, then even the Mantras, Mudras and all the other accessories of Yoga become illusory and magical; how can then the Yoga

¹ yathaiva matta-mātaṅgā guḍa-taṇḍulakādinā | pravašīkriyate vijñam vijñānañ ca mahādaye || (?) yathā mahauṣadhaṁ kiñcit sukhā-svādaṁ vyādhi-ghātakaṁ | prajñopāya-sukhaṁ tadvat helayā kleša-nāśanaṁ ||

ekasya gala-pāśah syād aparasya vandha-kartikā || aho upāya-sāmarthyam mahā-yāna-suyāyinām | kāminīm gādham ālingya bhajanti (?) makaradhvajah || MS. (B.N. No. Sanscrit 47) p. 22(B).

In the Com. on the Marma-kalikā-tantra, these verses are quoted as belonging to the Grhya-vajra-virāsinī-sādhana, vide MS. p. 16(A).

² mahā-sukham ca nirnimittam, tat katham tathā bhavitum arhati/san-nimitta-sukham eva sad-gurū-padešān nirnimittam bhavati/

MS. (Cambridge University library Add. 1699) p. 44(A).

yad idam sannimitta-sukham tad eva mahatām nimitta-parihīnam.

jnāna-svayambhū-rūpam mahā-sukham kalpanā-śūnyam | Vyakta-bhāvā-nugata-tattva-siddhi, MS. p. 171.

have the capacity of destroying the afflictions of the mind? In reply it has been said, "A snake-charmer creates a magical pillar and then destroys it,—but though the pillar is destroyed for ever, men are relieved thereby from poison, etc. So also is the case with all

the yogic practices."1

In the Hevajra-tantra we find some verses in explanation of the Buddhist Tantric practices, and as the Hevaira-tantra is quoted as authority in many connections in most other Tantras and commentaries, these verses of the Hevajra-tantra are made much use of in many of the texts and commentaries. It has been put into the mouth of the Lord himself that men may attain liberation through existence itself; they are destroyed by the fetters of worldly things, but are liberated through a critical examination of their nature.2 Again it is said, "The very bliss, which causes death (in one case), is itself called the meditation." It is further said, "Remove all your fetters of bondage through those very things through which people are ruined. People are deluded,-and they never know the truth, -and without truth they can never attain success." The other arguments found in the text are substantially the same as discussed above.5

bhāvenaiva vimucyante vajra-garbha mahā-kṛpa | badhyante bhāva-bandhena mucyante tat parīkṣayā || MS. p. 2(B).

* maraṇam yena saukhyena [sukheneha] tat-sukham dhyanam ucyate ||

Ibid., MS. p. 14(A).

* yena yena tu badhyate lokus tena tena tu bandhanam mucyate \ loko muhyati na vetti tattvam tattva-vivarjitah siddhir na lapsye ||

Ibid., MS. p. 26(A).

"A man versed in the science of poison counteracts the effect of poison with the same quantity of poison, which causes death to all the creatures. Meat-diet is prescribed for a patient attacked with gout,—and thus gout is cured by the application of another form of it; indeed the prescription of medicine often seems to be con-

¹ yathā gārudikah stambham sādhayitvā vināsyati | sa tasmin cira-naṣte'pi viṣādīn upasāmyati || Ascribed to Śānti-pāda, quoted in the Subhāṣitasaṃgraha, p. 67.

In the Dohās of Tillo-pāda, Saraha-pāda and Kāṇhu-pāda we meet with almost similar verses. Thus it is said,—as one engaged in the science of poison swallows poison and yet is not affected thereby, so does one enjoy the world without being attached to it.

tradictory to the ordinary experiences. The world is purified by the world itself,—false imaginations by greater imaginative constructions. As the water in the ear is removed by the application of water in the ear, so also the imaginative constructions of existence are to be purified in their turn by the corporeal forms. The fire-burnt are again pacified through fire, so those who are burnt by the fire of passions are again pacified by the fire of passions. Through the same direful activities, through which all creatures are ruined, they are again liberated from the fetters of the world, on condition that the activities are all prompted by a spirit of universal compassion. People die through passions and are again liberated through the passions,—this is an apparently contradictory idea,—unknown to the ordinary orthodox Buddhists."

yenaiva viṣa-khaṇḍena mriyante sarva-jantavah |
tenaiva viṣa-tattvajño-viṣena sphoṭayed viṣam ||
yathā vāta-grhītasya māsa-bhakṣyam pradīyate |
vātena hanyate vātam viparīt auṣadhi-kalpanā ||
bhava-śuddho bhavenaiva vikalpam pravikalpataḥ ||
karne toyam yathāviṣṭam prati-toyenv kṛṣyate |
tathā bhāva-vikalpo'pi ākāraih śodhyate khalu ||
yathā pāvaka-dagdhāś ca sidhyante vahninā punaḥ |
tathā rāgāgni-dagdhāś ca sidhyante rāga-vahninā ||
yena yena tu badhyante jantavo raudra-karmanā |
sopāyena tu tenaiva mucyante bhava-vandhanāt ||
rāgena badhyate loko rāgenaiva vimucyate |
viparīta-bhāvanā hyeṣā na jñātā buddha-tīrthikaiḥ ||
MS. pp. 37(A)—37(B).

See Sampuţikā. MS. p. 47(B).
Cj. also,—yena cittena bālāś ca samsāre bandhanam gatāh |
yoginas tena cittena sugatānām gatirgatāh |
Paūca-krama, MS. p. 26(B).

yenaiva mūdhā badhyante buddhā krīdanti tair iha | Vajra-dāka-tantra, MS. (R.A.S.B. No. 3825). yena yenaivopāyena mattā gacchanty adho-gatim | tena tenaivo pāyena yogī sīghram prasidhyati ||

Ekalla-vīra-canda-roṣaṇa-mahā-tantra, MS. p. 22(A).

rāgeņa hanyate rāgo vahni-dāhas ca vahninā | visato pi visam hanyāt upadesa-prayogatah |

sarva-pāpam kṣayam kṛtvā viparītenaiva sidhyati | Ibid., MS. p. 22(B).

iima visa bhakkhai visahi paluttā | [tima bhava bhuñiai bhavahi na juttā] Dohās of Tillo-pāda. As one touches the foam of some drink and yet his hands are not besmeared with the drink, so also the Yogin, though revelling in the objects of pleasure, is not affected thereby. As the lotus-leaf is never affected by the waves of water, though it is constantly in water, so also is the mind of a Yogin, which, though always surrounded by objects of pleasure, is never affected by them in any way. A Yogin, thus versed in the fundamental truth, is never disturbed by the objects of pleasure though he may indulge in them.

It should be remembered that wherever the citta clings to the objects of desire the ultimate nature of the self is not to be found; the ultimate nature of the self can be realised through the enjoyment of the worldly objects only when the ultimate nature of the world is realised as the vacuity through the instructions of the preceptor, and in such a state there remains no

Comm. on the previous Dohā.

* emai jo mūla saranto| visahi na vāhai visaa ramanto|

Dohās of Saraha-pāda.

It has been further said that the Yogin, who, even after he has been able to purify the objects of desire (through his transcendental knowledge), does not enjoy objects of pleasure, merely floats in the void; and for him there is every possibility of returning of the world of pleasure. His position is just like a crow in the ocean, which leaves the mast and hovers round and round and again returns to the same mast it left.

visaa-visuddhe naŭ ramai kevala sunna carei | uddi vohia kāŭ jima paluţţia tahavi padei |

Ibid.

Again,—"Don't repress the desire for the objects of pleasure, says Saraha; if one does so, he will be destroyed by these objects of desire again, as is the case with fish, insects, the elephant, blackbees and the deer". (Fish, insects, the elephant, black-bees and the deer are attracted and killed by their particular attachment to flavour, beauty, tactual pleasure, smell and sound respectively.)

visaasatti ma bandha karu are vadha sarahe vutta | mina paangama kari bhamara pekkhaha harinaha jutta | Ibid.

¹ visaa ramanta na visaa vilippai | ūara harai na pāṇī cchippai || Dohās of Saraha-pāda,

² punar yathā padma-patre jala-tarangam grhītvā tat pānīyair na lipyate/tadotpannā ca padma-patrāmbho-vad iti vacanāt/evam abhyāso yoginas ca/

difference between the world and the vacuity as there is no difference between the water of a river and its waves.' Profound and secret are the ways of this cult, -who can say anything, and who can hear? Who is really engaged in this cult? This path is just like an underground passage of a fort. As it is very advantageous to enter into a fort and to capture it and destroy it through this underground passage, so also is this path,-very advantageous to capture the fort of the illusory world and to destroy it through the destruction of all the imaginary constructions of the mind; but as there is the wicked dust in the passage which kills the inexperienced, but cannot do any harm to the experienced, so also there is in this path a great risk, which kills the uninitiate but can be overcome only by the initiate.2 When water enters into water, there is produced the Samarasa; similarly when mind enters into the pure consciousness of vacuity, it reaches the final state, where the virtues and vices of the world go neither for nor against the Yogin.3

¹ jatta vi cittahi vipphurai tatta vi nāha sarūa | anna taranga ki anna jalu bhava-sama khasama sarūa | Ibid.

kāsu kahijjai ko suņai etthu kajjasu līņa | duttha suranga-dhūli jima hia-jāa hiahi līņa | Ibid.
 jatta vi paisai jalahi jalu tattai samarasa hoi |

^{*} jatta vi paisai jalahi jalu tattai samarasa noi | dosa-gunāara citta tahā vadha parivakkha na koi | Ibid.

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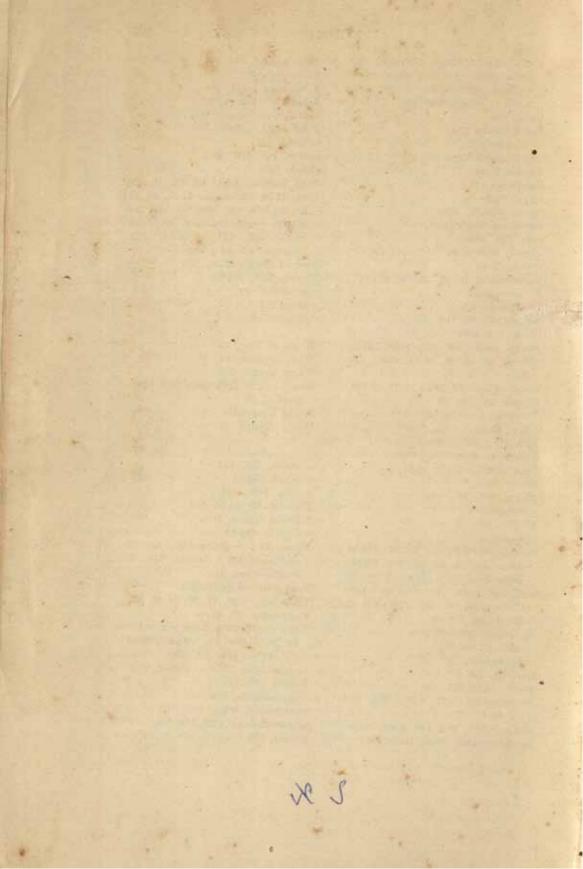
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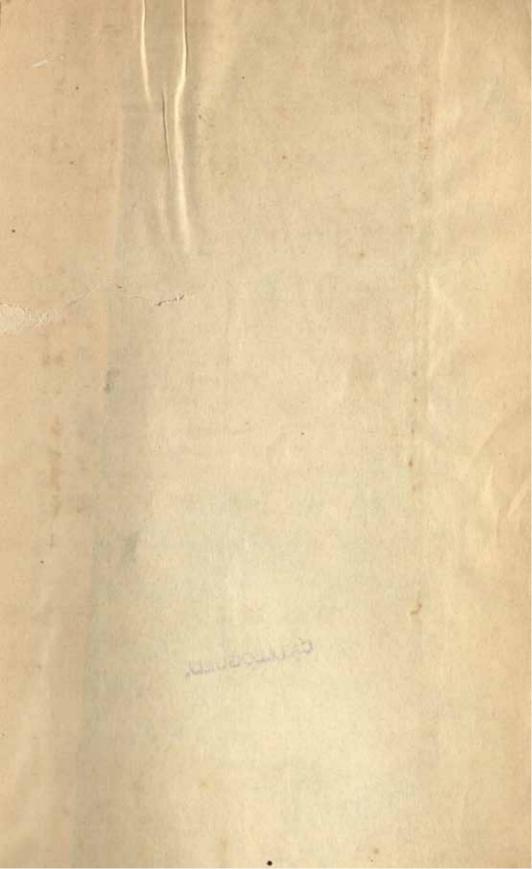
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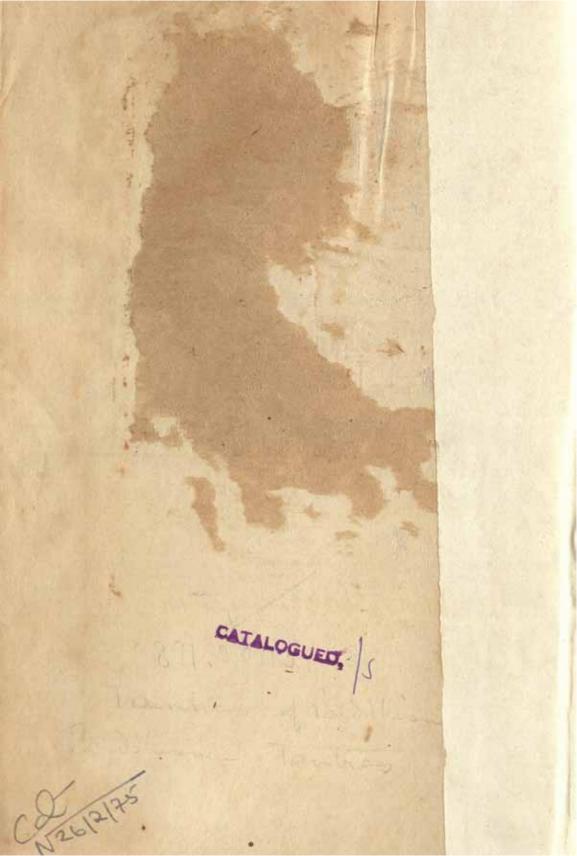
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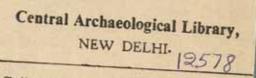
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